DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 219 018 HE 015 282

AUTHOR Murrell, Patricia H.; Donohue, Wyveta G.
TITLE The Life Cycles and Career Stages of Senior-Level Administrative Women in Higher Education.
INSTITUTION Memphis State Univ., Tenn.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE [82]
GRANT NIE-G-79-0085
NOTE 167p.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC07 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administrator Attitudes; Administrator Characteristics; Administrator Qualifications; *Administrators; Adult Development; Age; *Career Ladders; College Administration; *College Presidents; Developmental Stages; Educational Background; Employment Experience; *Employment Opportunities; *Employment Patterns; Family Life; *Females; Higher Education; State Colleges; Values

ABSTRACT

Women's opportunities for becoming senior-level administrators at 4-year, coeducational, state-supported colleges were assessed in 1979 in relation to age-related and other factors. Attention was also directed to whether there was a consistent career pattern for women attaining senior-level administrative positions. Biographical data and data regarding the women administrator's current lives were gathered through interviews with 44 subjects serving as president, provost, chancellor, vice president, vice provost, or vice chancellor. Most women in senior-level administrative positions had experience in middle-level administrative positions (e.g., vice presidents). Thirty-five of the administrators held terminal degrees; all presidents and vice presidents for academic affairs had doctorates. Over one-half of the vice presidents were invited to accept their positions by presidents. Senior-level women administrators went through transitions at age-related intervals throughout the adult life cycle. Careers, personal time commitment, current marriages, relationships with children, parental relationships, and personal values were examined at each transition. Thirty-five of the women worked from 50 to 85 hours per week, and most of the women worked for personal satisfaction. Nineteen of the women were currently married and 12 had never married. Among the conclusions are the following: women's opportunities for becoming senior-level administrators are enhanced if they hold the Ph.D., attain some type of midlevel administrative position in higher education, and increase their visibility among presidents; and women determine early in their adult life their preferred life style. Recommendations and a bibliography are included. (SW)

***********************************************************************
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
***********************************************************************

ED219018

HE

# THE LIFE CYCLES AND CAREER STAGES OF SENIOR-LEVEL ADMINISTRATIVE WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

by

Patricia H. Murrell

Wyveta G. Donohue

HE 015 282

NIE G-79-0085

# ABSTRACT

The Life Cycles and Career Stages of Senior-Level Administrative Women in Higher Education. Patricia H. Murrell, Project Director. Wyveta G. Donohue, Field Researcher.

## Purpose

The purposes were to determine: (1) if there was a career pattern for women attaining senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education, (2) if there were age-related factors which influenced their career patterns, and (3) if there were extra-age-related factors which influenced their career patterns.

## Procedures

The intensive interview was used for data collection. Biographical data and data regarding the women's current lives were gathered. Forty-four women serving as president, provost, chancellor, vice president, vice provost, or vice chancellor during the spring semester of 1979 participated. A content analysis was done in which interview topics were grouped, tabulated, summarized, and discussed.

## Summary of Findings

Most women in senior-level administrative positions had experience in middle-level administrative positions. Three of the five presidents had served as vice presidents immediately prior to assuming the presidency. Thirty-five of the administrators held terminal degrees; all presidents and vice presidents for academic affairs had the doctorate. Over 1/2 of the vice presidents were invited to accept their positions by presidents.

Senior-level administrative women went through transitions at age-related intervals throughout the adult life cycle. Careers, personal time commitment, current marriages, relationships with children, parental relationships, and personal values were examined at each transition.

In examining the extra-age-related factors, it was found that 35 of the women worked from 50 to 85 hours per week. Most women worked for personal satisfaction. The majority held religious values, had little interest in politics, and believed the women's movement had served as a positive influence. Twenty of the women had mentors and five served as mentors. Of the 35 women having terminal degrees, 32 reported positive relationships with their major professors. Nineteen of the women were currently married, 10 were divorced, 3 were widowed, and 12 had never married.

## Conclusions

The following conclusions were based on the findings of this study: (1) women's opportunities for becoming senior-level administrators are enhanced if they hold the PhD, attain some type of mid-level administrative position in higher education, and increase their visibility among presidents; (2) women can be reared to expect to attend college; (3) women determine early in their adult life their preferred life style; (4) women have an option of a homemaker life style which is, generally, unavailable to men in Western society; (5) once women fulfill early dreams they may feel a need to pursue a different life style; (6) the characteristics of a positive mentoring relationship are time investment and mutual respect, and such relationships must evolve naturally; and (7) transitional periods occur in the lives of women which provide opportunities for reevaluating their lives and establishing new goals for each upcoming decade.

## Recommendations

The follow-up studies suggested by the findings in this study were: (1) women in middle management positions in higher education should be studied to determine why they do not seek advancement, (2) the qualities exhibited by both women students and major professors should be investigated to determine what contributes to successful relationships, (3) women in other jobs should be studied to determine if the findings in this study hold true, and (4) the same group of women should be studied from different theoretical perspectives for comparative purposes in order to obtain a more complete conceptualization of women's egress into senior level administrative positions in higher education.

## Chapter I

## INTRODUCTION

"Changing the facial expression of higher education is about as difficult as coaxing a smile out of the Great Sphinx of Egypt" (Wasden, 1979). The reputation which this comment reflects is well deserved if one measure of change is the influx of women into senior-level administrative positions, because the number of such women at the time of this study was extremely limited. Yet, since the early 1960's the socioeconomic and demographic changes in the role of American women have been dramatic (Myers, 1979).

American women are experiencing a transitional era that should provide them with remarkable career opportunities representing dramatic changes from their past. The change that is occurring is reflected in federal legislation of the 1960's and 1970's ensuring women the opportunity to pursue the education and training necessary for developing an orientation toward lifelong careers. Student is no longer synonymous with adolescent or young adult, and even mature women are returning to school for credentials. In addition, contemporary society increasingly is accepting nontraditional living arrangements. Lifelong singleness, smaller families, child-free families, separate households, and female-headed households are becoming a reality in American society. Strong economic pressures are also becoming a major factor. Such pressures are forcing many families to depend on two incomes; thus, the wife/mother and the career woman are often identical (Myers, 1979).

Although the percentages are decreasing, American women are still preferring careers in the traditionally female fields, and education is one of their desired choices. As women continue to be heavily concentrated in the field of education, an understanding is needed of the career changes women experience and how these changes affect their upward career mobility. It is such an understanding that this study addresses by exploring the factors prevalent at specific ages throughout the adult life cycle of women who are serving in administrative positions in higher education.

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify the major age-related and extra-age-related factors associated with women who maintained senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education in 1979. An additional focus of this study was to determine if there was a consistent career pattern for women attaining senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education.

The major research questions were: (a) Are there critical age-related factors which have influenced the career patterns of women in senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education? (b) Are there extra-age-related factors which have influenced the career patterns of women in senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education?

## Definitions

Adult life cycle -- the process of the individual life from young adulthood forward with its patterns of specific events and relationships.

Age-related factors -- the factors identified with specific ages which affect the careers of women in senior-level administrative positions.

Career patterns -- the similar educational and occupational experiences among the women which provide for the attainment of senior-level administrative positions.

Extra-age-related factors -- the factors of similarity among the daily lives of women in senior-level administrative positions which affect the women's careers.

Senior-level administrative position -- a president, vice president, provost, vice provost, chancellor or vice chancellor.

Settling -- the process of deciding whether to make a lifelong commitment to another person or to reserve that time and space for self.

Transition -- a period of time when a woman reviews and evaluates her life and, as a result, sets new goals and commitments for future living. Changes are attempted in both the self and the outer world and result in a different life following such a period.

## Need for the Study

Dramatic changes in the role of women employed in American colleges and universities in the last few years have been confirmed by Astin (1977). Astin described search committees now as including women among their pools of candidates and many institutions as employing affirmative action officers to ensure equal opportunity. Astin credited these changes in part to the women's movement, in part to the influence of sex discrimination research and in part to federal affirmative action legislation.

The number of women receiving doctorates in education in 1961-62 was 359; this number rose to 1,355 in 1970-71 (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975). In order for higher education to absorb its share of this large increase in college-educated women, a movement of more of these women into the traditionally male-dominated administrative positions seemed essential; yet, published data in 1977 revealed that education, traditionally a female profession, was still being ruled by men (Grambs, 1977). In 1975 Peggy Elder (1975) suggested that women were little closer to being full participants in the complete process of higher education than they had been a century ago.

In 1973 Alexander Astin (1977) conducted a study which revealed that in all coeducational institutions in the United States fewer than 10% of the top posts were occupied by women--132 versus 1,808 men. Even this percentage was inflated; of the 132 women presidents, all but 25 were presidents of either Roman Catholic or women's colleges.

In 1977 Astin (1977) updated these findings and found that 1% of all presidents of public four-year colleges and private and public universities were women. Astin also found women to be grossly underrepresented as chief academic officers and as deans of colleges of arts and sciences--positions from which he reported presidents to be most frequently selected. Using the proportion of women on university faculties as a guide, women in these three top positions were reported as underrepresented by more than 15:1.

This absence of representative numbers of women in higher education at the administrative ranks was not entirely due to the discriminatory policies and practices of colleges and universities (Elder, 1975), although Astin (1977) found such policies and practices to still be a problem in 1977. Astin (1977) also discovered that many talented women faculty members did not expend the same effort as their male colleagues in making themselves visible to search committees. A number of studies on sex differences have documented the differences between men and women in status aspirations, interpersonal aggressiveness, and dominance (Astin, 1977). Bernard (1971) stated that federal legislation alone would not guarantee improvements for the status of women in educational administration and that much of the change would have to result from increased motivation of women to pursue such positions.

Bernard (1971) stated that the socialization of women was not congruent with their talents or their academic preparation. Bernard also suggested that it was contrary to the public interest to teach women to avoid competing in the traditionally male professions and that access to such professions should be reexamined and modified.

Various reasons were offered to explain why so few women prepare themselves for major administrative positions in higher education. Strommer (1976) found that some female students, especially graduate students, dropped out after becoming discouraged by the absence of women faculty. Elder (1975) suggested that young women in higher education were at a great disadvantage, having no female role models. Blaska (1976) stated that the lack of women in higher education served as a silent but potent message that high career expectations were unrealistic for a woman. Palmieri and Shakeshaft (1976) found that women who did advance in higher education must be prepared for psychosocial isolation within the organizational system largely staffed by men.

Elder (1975) suggested that many women were motivated to avoid success and suffered with internal ambivalencies over career and domestic interests. Bernard (1981) found that young women between the ages of 18 and 22 did not see their life courses as clearly as young men did, since women anticipated marrying, bearing children, and being in the labor force or pursuing a career only part of the time. Bernard also stated that such young women were far from clear about the sequence of such events and did little conscious organizing around their careers.

Bernard (1971, p. 253) stated that society placed pressure on young women to marry--"Better dead than unwed"--and that choosing not to marry might have considerable limitations. Bernard (1981) also found that in relation to the career plans of women childbearing had greater impact on work histories and careers than did marriage. For most women time for childbearing stultified career advancement. Thus, the crucial ingredient was not the career pattern of professional women but, rather, the timing and length of interruptions within the pattern (Bernard, 1981).

## Significance of the Study

Recent research in adult development by Daniel Levinson (1978) demonstrated that regardless of the original career choice, men went through specific age-related periods throughout the adult life cycle which produced both professional and personal changes in their lives. There were definite periods of examining and reexamining prior interests and aspirations. Levinson stated that adult developmental patterns revealed relationships between ages and changes, concerns, crises, and other adult characteristics.

A study of adult developmental patterns of women administrators in higher education was viewed as a means of identifying the major factors influencing women in their pursuit of administrative roles in higher education. The importance of studying the life cycle of women was advocated by Daniel Levinson (1978), whose work concentrated on the life cycle of men. According to Laws (1976) the topic of occupational aspiration of women administrators and its relation to changes in work motivation during the life cycle has received no attention from previous researchers.

Using the approach proposed by Levinson (1978) for examining the individual life structure of women seemed to be defensible. Moreover, this method appeared to be especially appropriate for directing an investigation into the life structures of women in senior-level administrative positions in higher education.

## Procedures

This study was designed for gathering data through intensive interviews with all women in senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education. The interviewer gathered autobiographical data and data regarding the women's current professional and extraprofessional involvements. An analysis was made to determine if certain factors were more characteristic of the lives of the women at specific ages. A more detailed explanation of procedures is provided in Chapter III.

## Limits of the Study

Only female administrators who served in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education were included in this study. The administrative positions were limited to president, provost, chancellor, vice president, vice provost, and vice chancellor. Furthermore, this study did not undertake an examination of the development of these women prior to the period of young adulthood.

# Chapter II

# METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

Chapter II of this study is divided into four sections. The first section presents the development of the interview structure, and the second section provides an explanation of the identification of the population. The third section discusses the process of data collection, and the fourth section explains the method of data analysis.

## Development of Interview Structure

### Interview Guide

The selected method of data collection in this study was the on-site, intensive interview. The interview guide to be utilized was provided by Stewart (1977, Appendix A), although it needed adaptation. One purpose of Stewart's guide was to elicit responses from a woman so the interviewer could develop a chronology of the woman's life events, concentrating the investigation on the woman's post-adolescent years. A second purpose of Stewart's guide was to explore a woman's current life through questions relating to eight major areas. The eight major areas were as follows: "Current Life Themes," "Sense of Self in World," "Family of Procreation," "Family of Origin," "Relationship with Men," "Relationship with Women," "Extra-Familial Involvement," and "Developmental History."

Stewart's interview was structured for two sessions, each 1 to 2 hours in length. The subjects participating in this study lived in different areas of the country; therefore, logistical considerations necessitated that interviews be limited to one session.

## Interviewer

The interviewer in this study had completed graduate level courses in counseling, educational administration, and research and had 6 years' experience as a counselor on a state university campus. Such educational and occupational experiences emphasized the necessary interviewing skills of listening and asking appropriate questions at appropriate times. All interviews were conducted by the researcher.

## Field Testing

Twelve female students, all over 30 years of age, from a state university campus were invited to participate in the field testing of the interview guide. Of the 12 students, 10 accepted the invitation. Following the interviews, each of the 10 participants was asked to identify questions in the guide that caused discomfort. The participants identified six such questions. The participants' reactions and the six questions were referred to the dissertation committee, and the committee decided these six questions should be deleted from the guide and not used in the study.

Following this interview revision, a female administrator on another state university campus was interviewed. This interview was video-taped for the purpose of permitting the chairman of this dissertation project to observe the techniques of the interviewer and to offer suggestions for further improvements of the guide. This administrator was also encouraged to offer suggestions.

The suggestions offered were: (a) to rearrange the major areas of the guide so that "Extra-Familial Involvement" concerning the topic of work would be placed near the beginning and reorder the topics under this area and (b) to condense the interview to approximately 3 hours, as interviews in the field testing had lasted approximately 4 hours. Probes under all areas were reduced, and Stewart's major areas of "Relationship with Men" and "Relationship with Women" were combined and reduced to become "Relationship with Others." The revised guide was field tested with another administrative woman on a state university campus. This interview lasted less than 3 hours.

### Final Guide

The final interview guide contained the following major areas, listed in their respective order: "Current Life Status," "Developmental History," "Extra-Familial Involvements," "Sense of Self in World," "Family of Procreation," "Family of Origin," and "Relationships with Others." Each area contained from 2 to 7 topics and each topic had from 1 to 10 probes for eliciting information (See Appendix B).

## Identification of Population

### Subject Selection

In May, 1978, a written request was sent to the state department of education in each state of the United States, requesting a list of women holding the offices of president, provost, chancellor, vice president, vice provost, and/or vice chancellor in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education in that state. From this survey of states, 34 responded with a list of women, 8 responded but did not provide a list, and 8 did not respond. From the responding states a list of 25 women was compiled, and each woman was mailed a letter requesting verification of the fact that she occupied such a position and inquiring as to her knowledge of other women holding such positions within her state.

For those states that either did not provide a list of women or did not respond, each four-year, coeducational, state-supported institution within that state was contacted. Three letters were sent to each such institution: one to the personnel department, one to the office of the president, and one to the affirmative action officer. The 18 women whose names were acquired from these institutions were contacted for verification and for names of other women holding similar positions.

For institutions that did not respond to the request, the Educational Directory, Colleges and Universities (Podolsky & Smith, 1978) was searched for positions listing names that could be identified as feminine. Letters were then addressed to these particular people, and this search yielded two women. Verification letters from all women produced an additional five women.

By October, 1978, 50 women had been identified as currently serving in senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education in the United States. After compiling this list of women holding such positions, the "Gazette" of the Chronicle of Higher Education was monitored regularly for listings of women securing such positions, retiring from positions, or changing institutions.

In January, 1979, three women resigned their administrative positions and another accepted such a position. To confirm termination dates, a telephone call was placed to the office of each woman who had resigned. A total of 48 women in senior-level administrative positions was identified for this study.

Of the 48 women identified, 5 served as presidents, 1 as chancellor, 3 as provosts, 30 as vice presidents, 2 as assistant provosts, and 7 as vice chancellors. These positions represented 45 different institutions in 26 states, with 3 institutions employing two women each. Two of the schools engaged both women as vice presidents; the third institution retained a woman as president and another woman as vice president.

Interview Scheduling

The 48 women holding the positions of president, provost, chancellor, vice president, vice provost, or vice chancellor of four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education within the United States during the spring academic semester (January-July) of 1979 were invited by letter to participate in this research project (Appendix C). An explanation of the purpose of the study was provided in the letter of invitation, and two women wrote declining participation in the study. The letters of invitation were followed with telephone calls by the researcher requesting appointment dates. During the telephone conversations two women withdrew from participation; however, interview dates were successfully established for the remaining 44 women participating in the study.

Interviews were conducted during the time period July, 1979, to November, 1979. During this interview period six women moved from the current listed position but continued to participate in the study.

## Data Collection

### Interview Procedures

The interview procedures were designed for the researcher to conduct the interviews in participants' home offices. The procedures were designed so that, with permission from the participants, the interviews would be tape recorded. The procedures were followed precisely for 39 of the 44 participants. Two interviews were conducted in non-office (public) settings, and three interviews were conducted by telephone because of illness of the subject, inclement weather, or schedule conflicts which made a personal visit impossible. Telephone interviews and one public setting prevented tape recording of the interviews, and the participants' responses were registered through note taking by the researcher. Due to job requirements of the participants and the lengthy time required to conduct the entire interview, four interviews were not completed in entirety. However, all collected responses were included in the data analysis.

Although a structured format was developed for the interview, the subjects were permitted to provide information in a spontaneous manner and to deviate from the original sequence of items. Subjects who were verbal often covered several areas of the interview when responding to one question. If all probes listed for the area were discussed, even though out of sequence, the interviewer recorded a check on the guide beside this area. For areas discussed superficially and out of sequence, written notes were made by the interviewer as reminders to return to these areas to obtain additional responses.

The structured format was followed in obtaining responses from many subjects, and they were directed through the interview in the order of the areas listed. All areas of the guide were covered with each subject, and at the close of the interview each subject was asked to provide additional information which she wished to share. No subject provided any additional information; however, subjects occasionally elaborated on their responses informally following the interviews; e.g., "In addition to traveling after retirement, I really have hopes of doing fund raising for a private school." Such responses were written to be included with each subject's recorded data.

## Procedural Adjustments

Only one subject was uncooperative. This subject expressed resentment at being asked to give 3 hours of time to an interview. All other subjects seemed eager to respond. If interviews were interrupted, each subject returned eager to begin where she had stopped. Some subjects invited the interviewer to observe the subject in other settings, such as a dean's council meeting or a legislative session. One subject requested that the taped interview not be utilized; however, the subject gave permission for the field notes to be used.

The amount of time required for the interviews varied due to differing levels of verbalization of the subjects. The shortest interview lasted approximately 20 minutes; the longest interview took more than 3 hours. The typical interview lasted 3 hours, as originally planned.

During the early interviews two subjects made reference to significant people not listed in the probes. The researcher perceive these comments to be of significance, and questions concerning these people were added to ensure that this additional data would be collected in future interviews. These two probes dealt with the relationships the participants had with their fathers during the undergraduate college years and with the doctoral major professor. Furthermore, one question that consistently produced no answer or simply elicited a shrug, nod of the head, or an "I couldn't say" was discarded. This question was, "Are you more comfortable in a group of men or a group of women?" At the conclusion of the interviews, three subjects recalled this question as having been troublesome. Two subjects expressed concern over answers they had given, and the other subject described it as a sexist question. This question was asked of 12 subjects before being discarded.

At the conclusion of the interviews a copy of each subject's resume was requested, and 37 were provided. The tapes, resumes, and notes recorded during the interviews with all subjects were later reviewed by the interviewer in order to remove identifying data and any sensitive information not related to the study.

## Data Analysis

To determine if a consistent career pattern existed for the subjects in this study, and to determine if there were age-related factors and extra-age-related factors influencing the careers of the subjects, the interview data were analyzed as follows: (a) written summaries were made of each subject's recorded interview which contained the subject's biographical data and response to each topic covered in the interview, (b) biographical outlines were classified by the settings of the subjects by their ages, (c) topic responses were classified by topic, (d) transitions were identified and classified by the ages of the subjects, and (e) individual data were grouped according to similar topics for a collective analysis.

### Biographical Data

For each of the 44 subjects, a biographical outline was constructed using the following categories offered by Lofland (1971):

Setting -- refers to the environmental surroundings of the subject, such as college, elementary classroom, or home.

Activities in the Setting -- explains the involvements of the subject in the setting, such as studying history, having children, or attending meetings.

Significant People in the Setting -- explains others in the setting of the subject who were encouraging or discouraging the subject.

Thoughts about the Setting -- refers to the subject's self-perceptions about the setting, her activities, and the people involved.

Reasons for Change -- describes the reasons for the subject's leaving this setting and moving to another.

The ages of a subject while in each setting were listed with all settings, and each setting was numbered by its chronological occurrence from high school graduation to the present (Appendix D). Biographical outlines were compared with available resumes to ensure accuracy of ages and ordering.

The individual biographical outlines were grouped to depict a group profile by plotting the settings of the subjects onto a horizontal bar graph. Each setting was plotted in terms of occurrence and duration by the age of the subject from high school graduation to the present.

Biographies were analyzed in the following ways:

1. The different types of jobs in the career paths by their order of occurrence.

2. The number of subjects experiencing different types of jobs.

3. The number of subjects maintaining each senior-level position by the subjects' present ages.

4. The number of subjects maintaining each senior-level position by first setting.

5. The number of subjects in each position held prior to assuming the present position by the senior-level administrative position.

6. The year subjects assumed their senior administrative positions by the number of subjects per year.

7. The methods of job acquisition by present ages of the subjects.

8. The levels and areas of academic degrees by the ages of the subjects.

9. The senior-level administrative positions by level of degrees.

10. The first marriage, divorce, and birth of first child by the ages of the subjects.

### Topic Responses

The written summary of each subject's interview contained that subject's response to all interview topics: typical day, work, success, hobby, dream, religion, politics, homosexuality, women's movement, time, body awareness, husband, children, parents, siblings and other relatives, special man, mentor/role models, and major professor. Individual responses related to each interview topic were grouped by topic, and the responses were listed by the response of the youngest participant to the oldest.

Similar responses to all topics were tabulated by their frequency of occurrence. Any patterns of similarity revealing factors influencing the careers of the subjects were summarized as extra-age-related factors.

Any questions not answered due to insufficient interview time were indicated, and any percentages given based the conversion on those subjects who actually provided an answer. The number of respondents differed for some questions because only those subjects who actually responded were included in the reported figures.

## Age-Related Factors

The entire written summary of each subject's interview was examined for changes made in the life of that subject that could be identified as a transition. Transitional changes were determined by using Levinson's (1978) definition of a transition, which is a period when a person reviews and evaluates life, and, as a result, sets new goals and commitments for future living. It is described as a struggling period in which changes must be attempted in both the self and the outer world. Each subject's life was examined for changes in careers, changes in familial relationships, and personal changes. Such identifiable changes were listed by the subjects' ages during the changes and by the types of problems marking the change.

Transitional periods were determined by comparing the frequency of similar ages for all subjects at the occurrence of such changes. After grouping by ages, transitional periods were classified by the different types of changes. Such changes were listed as age-related factors.

# Chapter III

## FINDINGS

Section one of this chapter focuses on the purpose of the study to determine if there were consistent career patterns for women who had attained senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education. The two research questions in this study are then addressed in sections two and three respectively:

1. Are there age-related factors which have influenced the careers of women in senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education?

2. Are there extra-age-related factors which have influenced the careers of women in senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education?

### Career Patterns

Because this is an age-related study, section one opens with a description of the ages of the subjects at the time of the interviews.

To determine if consistent career patterns existed among the subjects for attaining senior-level administrative positions, the data are then presented by the following: (a) career paths, (b) present position, (c) last position held prior to present, (d) method of job acquisition, and (e) educational attainment. These data are presented with the use of figures and graphs.

## Ages

The ages of the subjects at the time of the interviews covered 4 decades: 8 were in their 30's, 14 were in their 40's, 16 were in their 50's, and 6 were in their 60's. The age range was 34 to 65. The ages of the subjects had a mean of 49.4, a median of 49.5, and a mode of 55, as is indicated in Figure 1.

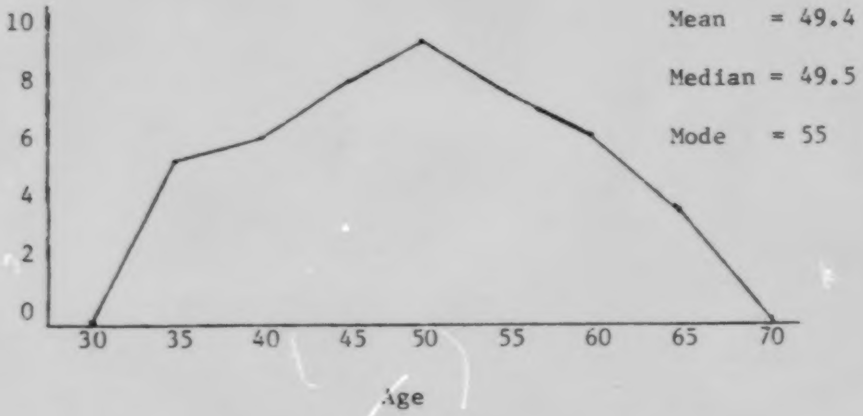


Figure 1. Number of subjects by age.

## Career Paths

The career paths followed by the subjects to reach their senior-level administrative positions varied. The only generic stage for all subjects was their college attendance during their late teens and/or early 20's.

After leaving this first period in college, the subjects participated in three basic life-style settings which were (a) furthering their education, (b) homemaking, and (c) working. Eleven subjects furthered their education which was life-style one, and 5 subjects selected a homemaking life-style. In the third category of working, 5 careers were in higher education, 14 were in elementary/secondary education, and 9 were in careers other than education, as is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Setting Following First College Attendance

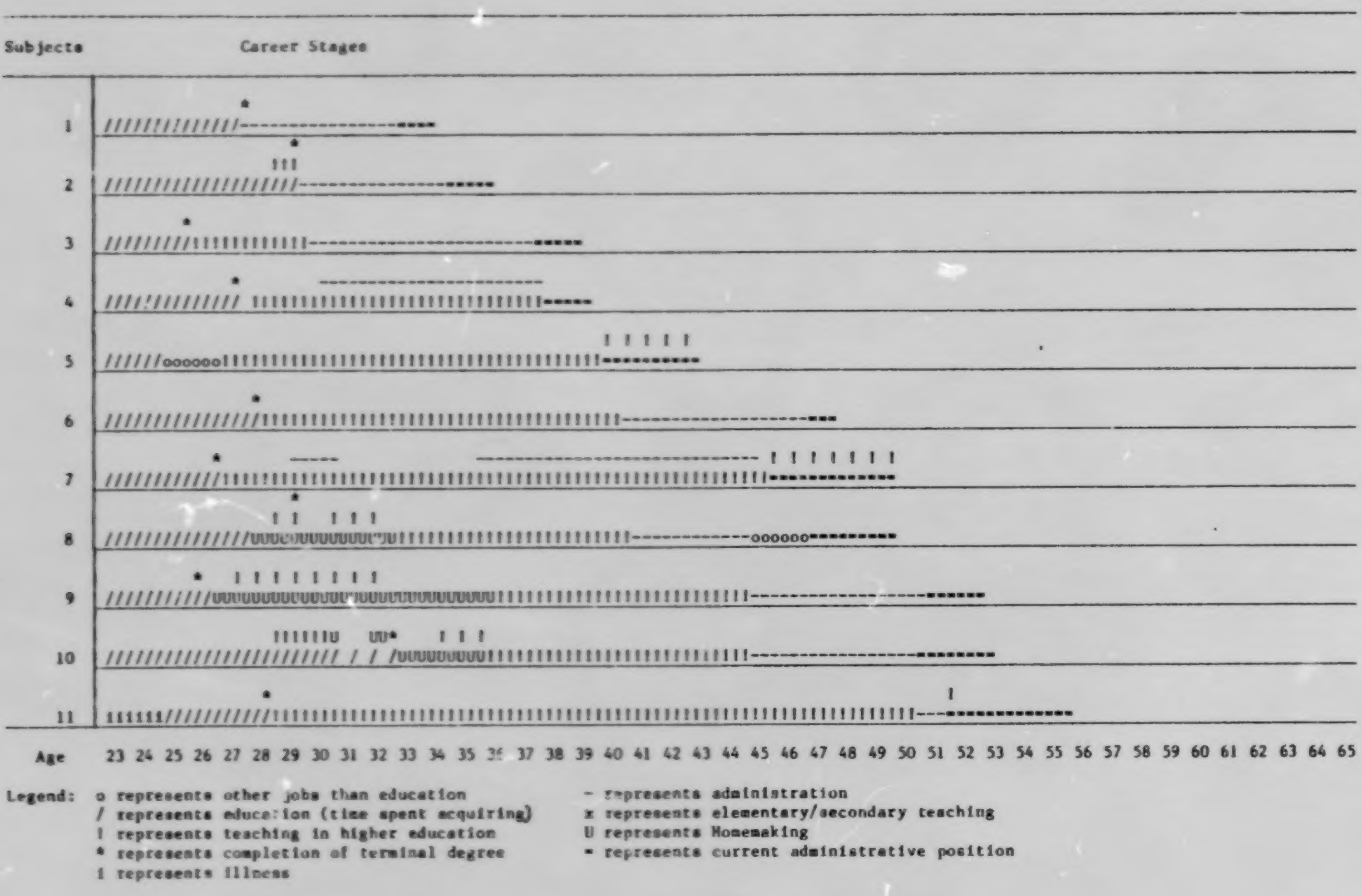
| Setting | | | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Students | | | 11 | 25 |
| Homemakers | | | 5 | 11 |
| Employed: | Higher Education | 5 | | |
| | Elementary/Secondary | 14 | | |
| | Other | 9 | 28 | 64 |
| Total | | | 44 | 100 |

The career paths of all subjects are presented in Figures 2-6. The sequence of career stages within each subject's career path is shown from age 23 to the present. Age 23 was selected for beginning the figures because it was the age at which all subjects had completed their first period in college and selected their initial life-style setting. The subjects in each figure are grouped by their initial life-style setting of (a) students, (b) homemakers, (c) teachers/administrators in higher education, (d) teachers/administrators in elementary/secondary education, and (e) careers other than education. The abscissa in each figure begins at age 23 and continues through age 65, the age of the oldest subject in this study. The ordinate in each figure represents individual subjects numbered according to the number of subjects in each particular category. Codes for reading the figures are presented beneath each.

Student

As Figure 2 shows, 11 (25% of the 44) subjects in this study selected a student life-style by furthering their education on a full-time basis until obtaining the terminal degree. The ages of these 11 subjects at the time of the interviews were 4 in their 30's, 4 in their 40's, and 3 in their 50's. The age range for receiving the terminal degree was 25 to 32.

The number of career stages for subjects in this category ranged from three to six. Listed in chronological order by the ages of the subjects, the career paths of all 11 subjects in the student category are presented below. They are:



Legend:
o represents other jobs than education
/ represents education (time spent acquiring)
! represents teaching in higher education
* represents completion of terminal degree
i represents illness
- represents administration
x represents elementary/secondary teaching
U represents Homemaking
= represents current administrative position

Figure 2. Career stages of eleven administrative subjects--student category.

1. student--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

2. student--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

3. student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

4. student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--senior-level administrator.

5. student--job other than education--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator/teacher.

6. student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

7. student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--senior-level administrator/teacher.

8. student--homemaker--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education administrator--job other than education--senior-level administrator.

9. student--homemaker--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

10. student--homemaker--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

11. student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator/teacher. This subject experienced an extended illness at the beginning of her career.

As can be seen from the above descriptions, subjects numbered 1 and 2, subjects numbered 3 and 11, and subjects numbered 9 and 10 had the same sequence of career stages. Three subjects numbered 5, 7, and 11, taught after becoming senior-level administrators. No subject in the student category had experience in elementary/secondary education.

Homemaker

As can be seen in Figure 3, five (11% of the 44) subjects were in the homemaking category. Two (40%) of the five subjects obtained the terminal degree at the ages of 37 and 45. At the time of the interviews the ages of the subjects in this category were one in her 40's and four in the 50's.

The career paths by order of career occurrence are listed in chronological order for all subjects.

1. homemaker--elementary/secondary teacher--student--higher education teacher--homemaker--job other than education--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. The first subject in this category attended college part-time during her first period as a homemaker and worked part-time while a student.

2. homemaker--senior-level administrator.

3. homemaker--job other than education--higher education teacher--senior-level administrator. This third subject worked occasionally part-time while a homemaker.

4. homemaker--job other than education--senior-level administrator.

5. homemaker--elementary/secondary teacher--student--elementary/secondary teacher--higher education teacher--higher

```
Subjects            Career Stages

                                                              *
           / // // // /                        ooo!!!!!!    ///
    1    | UUUUUUUUUUUUxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx///////////////!!!!!!!UUUooo------========

    2    | UUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUU==================

           oo oo oo oo oo oo xx xx oo oo                                          /
    3    | UUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUoooooooooooooooo!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!============

                                                              ////
    4    | UUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUoooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooooo==============

    5    | UUUUUUUUUUUUUUxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx/////////xxxxxx!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!---------------================

  Age      23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65
```

| Legend: | | |
|---|---|---|
| | o represents other jobs than education | - represents administration |
| | / represents education (time spent acquiring) | x represents elementary/secondary teaching |
| | ! represents teaching in higher education | U represents Homemaking |
| | * represents completion of terminal degree | = represents current administrative position |

Figure 3. Career states of five administrative subjects--homemaker category.

education administrator--senior-level administrator. The fifth subject in this category worked as a student and studied to complete the terminal degree while teaching in higher education.

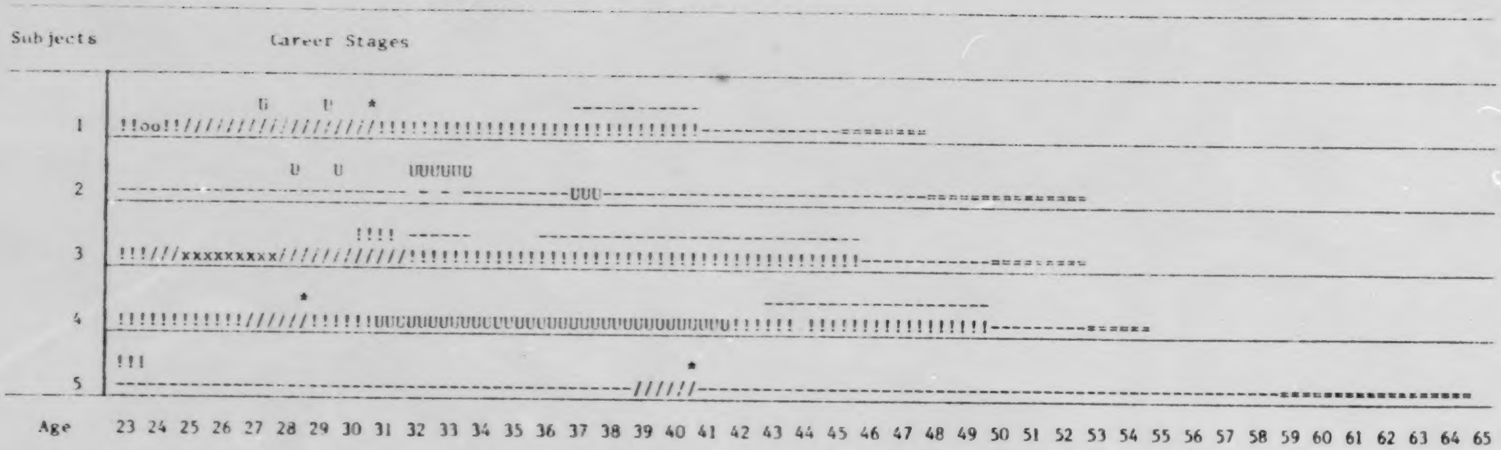
As can be seen from the above descriptions, the only two subjects in this category who returned to school as students had both been previously employed in elementary/secondary education. There were no identical career paths among the subjects in this category. The career path in this study which exhibited the fewest number of career changes was found in this category, as a subject moved directly from being a homemaker to a senior-level administrator.

Higher Education

As Figure 4 shows, five (11% of the 44) subjects in this study were first employed in higher education. Four (80%) of the five subjects obtained the terminal degree between the ages of 28 and 41. At the time of the interviews, the ages of the subjects were one in the 40's, three in their 50's, and one in the 60's.

Three subjects in this category were first employed in higher education as teachers and two as administrators. While both administrators experienced four stages in their career paths, the second stage of each differed. In chronological order by ages of the subjects, the sequence of career stages is provided for all five subjects in the higher education category:

1. higher education teacher--job other than education--higher education teacher--student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.



Legend:
o represents other jobs than education
/ represents education (time spent acquiring)
! represents teaching in higher education
* represents completion of terminal degree
- represents administration
x represents elementary/secondary teaching
U represents Homemaking
= represents current administrative position

Figure 4. Career stages of five administrative subjects--higher education category.

2. higher education administrator--homemaker--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

3. higher education teacher--student--elementary/secondary teacher--student--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. This subject taught in higher education while completing the terminal degree.

4. higher education teacher--student--higher education teacher--homemaker--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

5. higher education administrator--student--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

Elementary/Secondary Education

As Figure 5 shows, 14 (32% of the 44) subjects were first employed in elementary/secondary education. Twelve (86%) of these subjects obtained the terminal degree between the ages of 27 and 48. The ages of the 14 subjects in the elementary/secondary category at the time of the interviews were 3 in their 30's, 4 in their 40's, 5 in their 50's, and 2 in their 60's.

The different career stages of the subjects in this category ranged from 3 to 10, with considerable variation in the sequence of occurrence. The career paths for all 14 subjects in this category are listed below in chronological order by ages of the subjects:

1. elementary/secondary teacher--student--higher education administrator--higher education teacher--senior-level administrator/teacher.

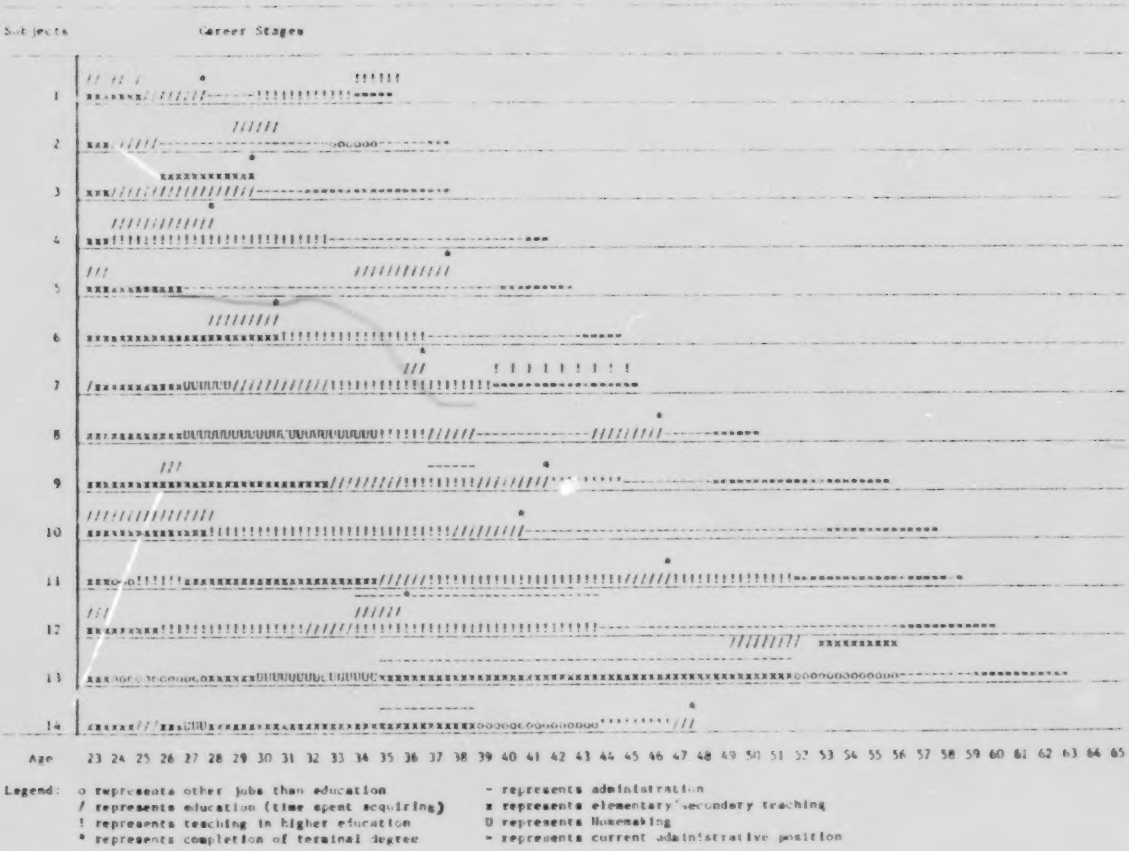


Figure 5. Career stages of fourteen administrative subjects--elementary/secondary education category.

2. elementary/secondary teacher--student--higher education administrator--job other than education--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. This subject took graduate courses during her first role as an administrator but did not complete a degree.

3. elementary/secondary teacher--student--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. This subject worked in elementary education part-time while a full-time graduate student.

4. elementary/secondary teacher--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. This fourth subject completed the terminal degree while teaching in higher education.

5. elementary/secondary teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. The fifth subject in this category attended college at the beginning of her elementary/secondary employment and again while a higher education administrator.

6. elementary/secondary teacher--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. Subject number six completed the terminal degree prior to moving to higher education.

7. elementary/secondary teacher--homemaker--student--higher education teacher--senior-level administrator/teacher.

8. elementary/secondary teacher--homemaker--higher education teacher--student--higher education administrator--student--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

9. elementary/secondary teacher--student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

10. elementary/secondary teacher--higher education teacher--student--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

11. elementary/secondary teacher--job other than education--higher education teacher--elementary/secondary teacher--student--higher education teacher--college student--higher education teacher--senior-level administrator.

12. elementary/secondary teacher--higher education teacher--student--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. This subject studied while in elementary/secondary education and completed the terminal degree after becoming an administrator/teacher in higher education.

13. elementary/secondary teacher--job other than education--elementary/secondary teacher--homemaker--elementary/secondary administrator--job other than education--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. This subject took college courses prior to accepting a job other than education. While working in a job other than education, this subject worked part-time in elementary education.

14. elementary/secondary teacher--student--elementary/secondary teacher--homemaker--elementary/secondary teacher--elementary/secondary administrator--job other than education--higher education

teacher--student--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

Subjects numbered 13 and 14 were the only subjects in this study to serve as administrators in elementary/secondary education. Although the duration of each stage varied, the fourth and sixth subjects in this category experienced an identical sequence of career stages.

### Jobs Other than Education

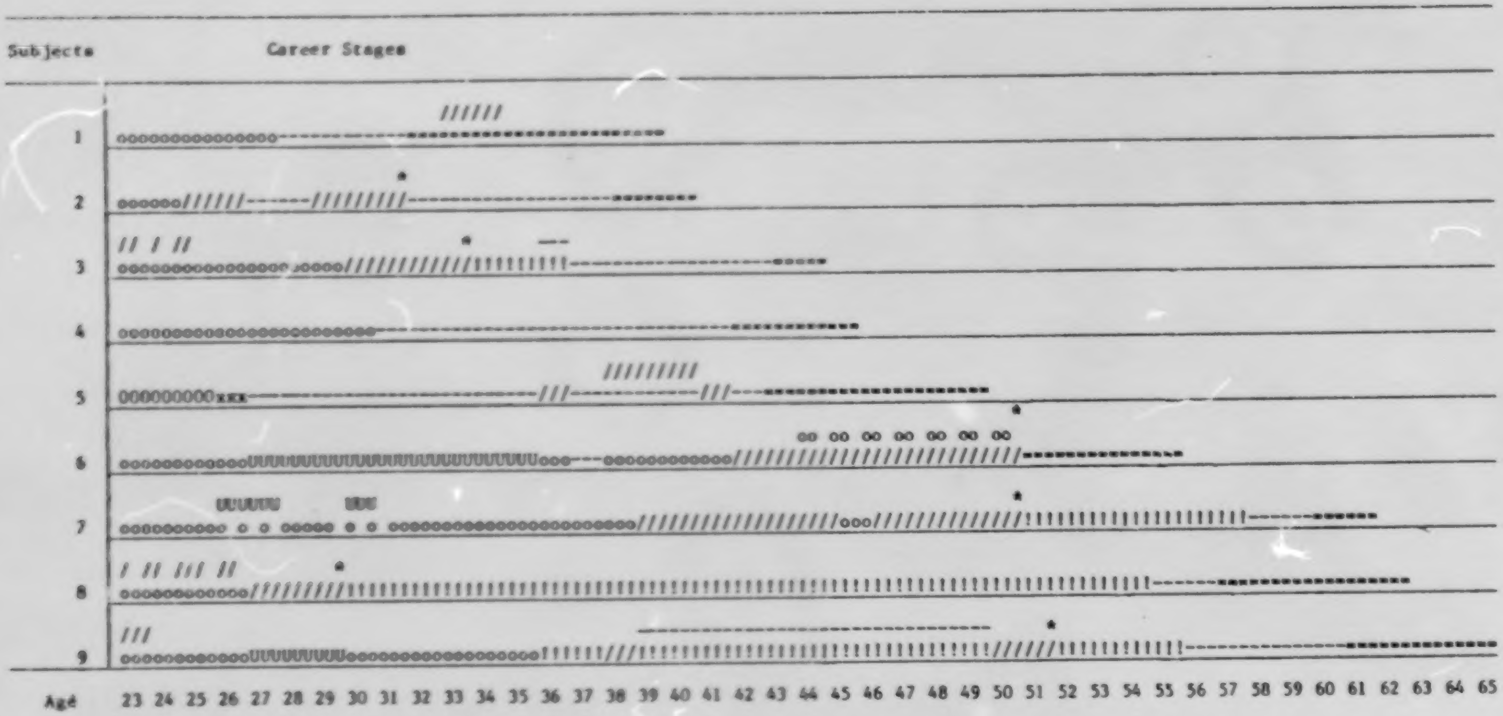
As Figure 6 shows, nine (21% of the 44) subjects in this study were first employed in jobs other than education. Six (67% of the nine) subjects obtained the terminal degree between the ages of 29 and 52. The ages of the subjects in this category at the time of the interviews were one in her 30's, four in their 40's, one in her 50's, and three in their 60's.

Only two subjects, numbered 1 and 4, experienced the same sequence of careers. The career paths of all subjects in the other than education category are provided in chronological order:

1. job other than education--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. This first subject took college courses after becoming a senior-level administrator.

2. job other than education--student--higher education administrator--student--higher education administrator--senior level administrator.

3. job other than education--student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator/teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. At the beginning of her career,



Legend:
o represents other jobs than education
/ represents education (time spent acquiring)
! represents teaching in higher education
* represents completion of terminal degree
- represents administration
x represents elementary/secondary teaching
U represents Homemaking
▬ represents current administrative position

Figure 6. Career stages of nine administrative subjects--job other category.

the third subject worked full-time in a job other than education while a graduate student.

4. job other than education--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator.

5. job other than education--elementary/secondary teacher--higher education administrator--student--higher education administrator--student--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. This fifth subject studied part-time while employed between her first and second periods as a full-time student.

6. job other than education--homemaker--job other than education--higher education administrator--job other than education--student--senior-level administrator. While a student, this sixth subject worked part-time in a job other than education.

7. job other than education--student--job other than education--student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. Although she did not quit work completely, this subject reduced her work load twice to leave more time for homemaking.

8. job other than education--student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. During her job other than education, this subject was a part-time student.

9. job other than education--homemaker--job other than education--higher education teacher--student--higher education administrator/teacher--student--higher education teacher--higher education administrator--senior-level administrator. At the beginning of

her career while still a student, this subject worked full-time in a job other than education.

The first subject in the other than education category was the only subject in this study to return to school as a student after becoming a senior-level administrator. This subject completed a Master of Business Administration degree. The sixth subject in this category was the only subject in this study to obtain a senior-level position immediately upon obtaining the terminal degree.

### Summary

As Figure 7 shows, no one career stage was reported by all 44 subjects in this study prior to becoming senior-level administrators. While 39 (89% of the 44 subjects) had been higher education administrators, 5 subjects had no previous administrative experience in higher education. Of the 44 subjects, 29 (66%) had taught in higher education, and 34 (77% of the 44 subjects) had been full-time students or had made acquiring education their primary vocation. Of the 44 subjects, 18 (41%) had been previously employed in elementary/secondary education, and 41% had been employed in jobs other than education. Of the 44 subjects, 16 (36%) had taken career breaks for homemaking.

The five subjects in this study who did not have prior experience in higher education administration were three in the homemaker category and two in the elementary/secondary education category. No subject in the student category had ever been employed in elementary/secondary education, and no subject in the higher education category was ever employed in a job other than education.

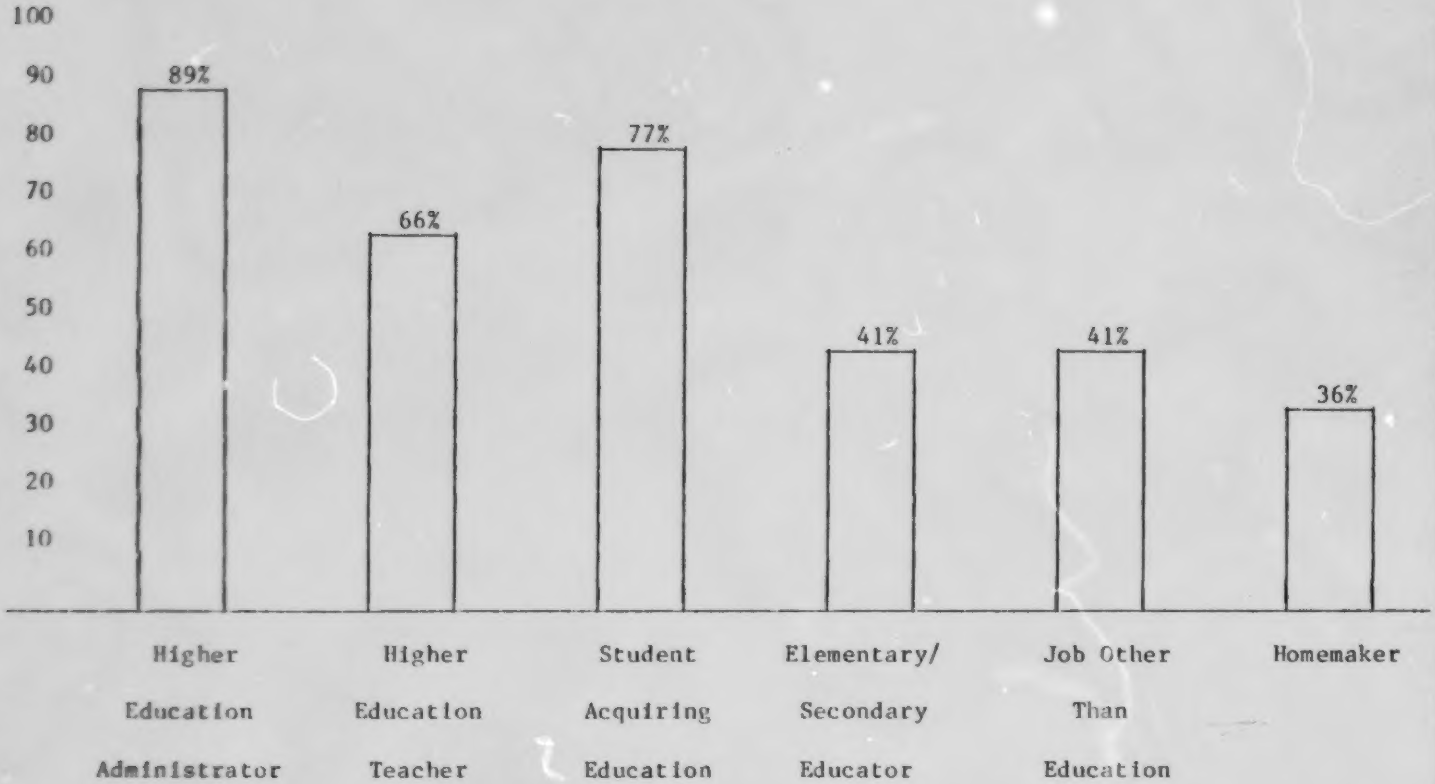


Figure 7. Percentage of subjects by career stages.

The shortest period of time for full-time involvement as a student by any subject was 2 years. The shortest period any subject spent in all other stages was 1 year. The longest length of time for a subject in each different career was (a) higher education administration, 34 years; (b) higher education teaching, 25 years; (c) student, 11 years; (d) elementary/secondary education, 20 years; (e) jobs other than education, 18 years; and (6) homemaking, 23 years.

### Current Administrative Positions

The 44 participants in this study maintained positions in eight different areas of administration. Titles varied according to institutional structure; e.g., vice chancellor for academic affairs, academic provost, vice president for academic affairs. For discussion throughout this study the single title of president will be used when discussing the top executive officer of an institution, and vice president will be used for all senior officers reporting to this top officer.

As is revealed in Table 2, most of the 44 subjects in this study served in two areas: academics and student affairs. Twenty (45%) were employed as vice presidents for academic affairs and 12 (27%) served as vice presidents for student affairs. Subjects of all ages were employed in both of these areas. Five subjects served as presidents. All presidents were in their 40's or 50's. Administrative affairs employed 2 subjects whose ages were in the 50's. The remaining areas of fiscal affairs, institutional research, and public relations employed 1 subject each, whose ages were in the 30's, 60's, and 50's respectively.

Table 2

Administrative Titles of Women by Age

| Title | Age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | Total |
| President | | 3 | 2 | | 5 |
| Vice President for Academic Affairs | 3 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 20 |
| Vice President for Administrative Affairs | 1 | 1 | | | 2 |
| Vice President for Development | | | 2 | | 2 |
| Vice President for Fiscal Affairs | 1 | | | | 1 |
| Vice President for Institutional Research | | | | 1 | 1 |
| Vice President for Public Relations | | | 1 | | 1 |
| Vice President for Student Affairs | 3 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 12 |

As is shown in Table 3, those subjects who served as presidents began their careers in three life-style categories: student, higher education, and elementary/secondary education. At the time of this study, no subject in the homemaker category or job other than education category had become a president. While vice presidents for academic affairs were from all life-style categories, eight (40% of the 20) subjects began in the student category, and five (25% of the

Table 3

Present Position Obtained by Life-Style Classification

| Present Position | Life-Style<br>Student | Homemaker | Career-Higher Education | Career-Elementary Education | Career-Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| President | 2 | | 1 | 2 | |
| Vice President for Academic Affairs | 8 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 4 |
| Vice President for Administrative Affairs | | | | | 2 |
| Vice President for Development | | 2 | | | |
| Vice President for Fiscal Affairs | 1 | | | | |
| Vice President for Institutional Research | | | | 1 | |
| Vice President for Public Relations | | 1 | | | |
| Vice President for Student Affairs | | 1 | 2 | 6 | 3 |

20) began in the elementary/secondary education category. Both vice presidents for administrative affairs came from the job other than education category, and both vice presidents for development came from the homemaker category. Six (50% of the 12) subjects who served as vice presidents for student affairs began in the elementary/secondary education category, and three (25%) began in the job other than education category. The remaining vice presidents for student affairs were from the homemaker and higher education categories. The vice president for fiscal affairs began in the student category; the vice president for institutional affairs, in the elementary/secondary category; and the vice president for public relations, in the homemaker category.

As is shown in Table 4, all subjects in this study had secured their present positions since 1972. Most (73%) of the subjects had maintained their present positions 5 years or less. Of the 44 subjects, 21 (47%) had attained their office since 1977. One subject attained the senior-level administrative position during the spring semester of 1979.

The ages of the subjects at the time they accepted their current positions ranged from 32 to 61. The mean age was 46.

### Last Position Prior to Senior Administrative

As Table 5 shows, there was no one predominant position held by the subjects immediately prior to assuming the present senior-level position; however, three (60%) of the five presidents had immediately served as vice presidents. One president had served as an acting president, and the other had been employed in a state department of

Table 4

Year Subjects Assumed Current Administrative Position

| Year | Number of Subjects | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| 1972 | 1 | 2 |
| 1973 | 3 | 7 |
| 1974 | 8 | 18 |
| 1975 | 9 | 21 |
| 1976 | 2 | 5 |
| 1977 | 8 | 18 |
| 1978 | 12 | 27 |
| 1979 (spring semester) | 1 | 2 |
| Total | 44 | 100 |

Table 5

Last Position Held Prior to Assuming Current Position

| | President | Vice President Academics | Vice President Administrative Affairs | Vice President Development | Vice President Fiscal Affairs | Vice President Institutional Research | Vice President Public Relations | Vice President Student Affairs |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Academic Vice President | 2 | 1 | | | | | | |
| Acting President | 1 | | | | | | | |
| Acting Vice President | | 3 | | | | | | 1 |
| Associate Vice President | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Assistant to the President | | | | | 1 | | | |
| Assistant Vice President | | | 1 | | | | | 1 |
| Executive Vice President | 1 | | | | | | | |
| State Departments of Education | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Academic Dean | | 2 | | | | | | |
| Dean of Arts | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Dean of Arts and Sciences | | 3 | | | | | | |
| Dean of Educational Services | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Dean of the Graduate School | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Dean of the Library | | | 1 | | | | | |
| Dean of Nursing | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Dean of Students | | | | | | | | 1 |
| Associate Dean of Curriculum | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Department Chairman - English | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Director - B.A. Programs | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Director - Business Services | | | 1 | | | | | |
| Director of Curriculum | | | | 1 | | | | |
| Director of Graduate Programs | | | | | | | | 1 |
| Faculty | | 1 | | | | | | 1 |
| Registrar | | | | | | 1 | | |
| Other | | 1 | | 1 | | | 1 | 2 |

education. Nine (23%) of the 39 vice presidents had served as vice president, assistant president, or acting, assistant, or associate vice president. The remaining 30 (77%) vice presidents held positions with titles of dean, associate dean, department chairman, director, faculty, registrar, or jobs other than education.

Job Acquisition

Presidents of the employing institutions had asked 24 (62% of the 39) vice presidents in this study to take their senior-level administrative positions. Subjects from all age groups attained their present positions through such requests. Four subjects were nominated for their present positions. Four subjects were asked by a search committee to accept their administrative positions. Twelve subjects from the different age groups obtained their jobs by answering advertisements, as is indicated in Table 6.

Of the 24 subjects who were asked by a president to accept their senior-level administrative positions, 10 (42%) were exempt from a formal search process. Two of these subjects accepted their positions, without a search, under other position titles that were later upgraded to a vice presidential level. Three subjects in this study had never had a need to organize a resume.

Two institutions conducted official searches at the insistence of the 2 subjects being employed in the institutions. Both subjects refused an appointment without an official search. Two other subjects stated that their presidents offered to reactivate a search process if they would agree in advance to accept the positions.

## Table 6

## Method of Job Acquisition

| Age | Asked by President | Nominated | Asked by Search Committee | Responded to Advertisements |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30-39 | 6 | | | 2 |
| 40-49 | 6 | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| 50-59 | 8 | 2 | 1 | 5 |
| 60-69 | 4 | | 1 | 1 |
| Total | 24 | 4 | 4 | 12 |

As Table 7 shows, 26 (59% of the 44) subjects moved into their senior-level administrative positions at institutions where they were presently employed. Previous employment ranged from 1 to 30 years. Ten (38% of the 26) had served at the same institution 5 years or less; 11 subjects had served longer than 10 years.

Table 7

Previous Years at Employing Institution

| Years | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| 1-5 | 10 | 38 |
| 6-10 | 5 | 19 |
| 11-15 | 5 | 19 |
| 16-20 | 3 | 12 |
| 21-25 | 2 | 8 |
| 26-30 | 1 | 4 |
| Total | 26 | 100 |

Educational Attainment

The 44 participants in this study were characterized by a diversity of educational backgrounds. All levels of educational degrees were obtained by the subjects; however, all subjects did possess at least a baccalaureate degree.

As Table 8 reveals, the 44 subjects concentrated in 25 different fields of study, with only 3 fields represented by more than 2 subjects; 3 subjects obtained a doctor of education degree with a specialization in higher education administration, 3 obtained a doctor of philosophy in history, and 3 a doctor of philosophy in philosophy. Three subjects, aged in the 40's and 50's at the time of this study, attained senior-level administrative positions with baccalaureate degrees. The master's degree, represented by all ages, was the highest degree for 6 subjects. Seven subjects had attained the doctor of education; however, no subject in the age group of the 30's had done so. One subject possessed a doctor of medicine degree. Twenty-seven subjects, of all ages, had acquired doctor of philosophy degrees.

Of the 44 subjects, 35 (82%) received the terminal degree. As Figure 8 shows, the age range for receiving this degree was 25 to 50, with an average age of 34.5 years.

As Table 9 reveals, the three subjects with only baccalaureate degrees provided leadership in the areas of administrative affairs, development, and public relations. The subjects holding only master's degrees served in the areas of administrative affairs and institutional research and made up 1/3 of the student affairs area. The remaining vice presidents for student affairs possessed either the EdD or the PhD, and the vice presidents for development and fiscal affairs both held PhD degrees. All academic vice presidents held the doctoral degree, with one being a medical doctor. Four of the presidents possessed the PhD, and the other possessed an EdD.

Table 8

Highest Academic Degree Attained by Area and Age

| | | Age | | | | | Group |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Degree | Area of Concentration | 30-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60-69 | Total | Total |
| Baccalaureate | | | | | | | |
| AB | Philosophy | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| BA | Communications | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| BA | Politics | | 1 | | | 1 | 3 |
| Masters | | | | | | | |
| MA | Counseling | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| MA | Psychology | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| MBA | Business Administration | 2 | | | | 2 | |
| MEd | Mathematics | | | | 1 | 1 | |
| MS | Biology | | 1 | | | 1 | 6 |
| Doctorate | | | | | | | |
| EdD | Curriculum | | | 1 | 1 | 2 | |
| EdD | Elementary Education | | 1 | | | 1 | |
| EdD | Higher Education Administration | | 2 | | 1 | 3 | |
| EdD | Student Personnel | | | | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| MD | Pulmonary Medicine | | | 1 | | 1 | 1 |
| PhD | Accounting | 1 | | | | 1 | |
| PhD | Anthropology | | 1 | 1 | | 2 | |
| PhD | Biology | | 1 | | | 1 | |
| PhD | Counseling | 2 | | | | 2 | |
| PhD | English | 1 | | 1 | | 2 | |
| PhD | Foreign Languages | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| PhD | History | 1 | 2 | | | 3 | |
| PhD | Higher Education Administration | | | 2 | | 2 | |
| PhD | Human Development | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| PhD | Music | | | 1 | 1 | 2 | |
| PhD | Nursing | | 1 | | | 1 | |
| PhD | Physical Education | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| PhD | Philosophy | | 2 | | 1 | 3 | |
| PhD | Political Science | 1 | | | | 1 | |
| PhD | Psychology | | 1 | | | 1 | |
| PhD | Reading | | | 1 | | 1 | |
| PhD | Student Personnel | | 1 | | | 1 | |
| PhD | Sociology | | | 1 | | 1 | 27 |

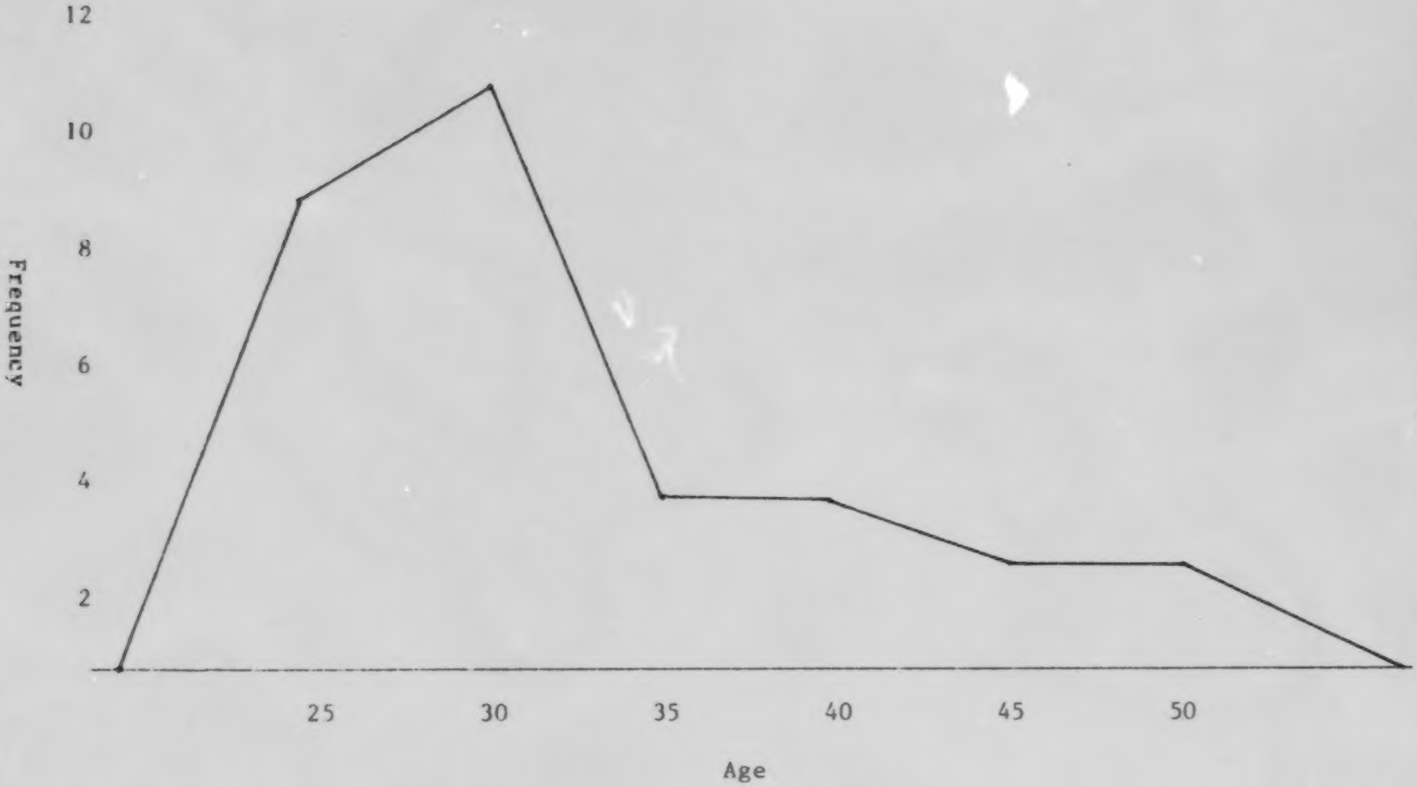


Figure 8. Number obtaining terminal degree by age.

Table 9

Highest Degree Held by Administrative Position

| Position | AB | BA | MA | MBA | MEd | MS | EdD | MD | PhD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| President | | | | | | | 1 | | 4 |
| Vice President for Academic Affairs | | | | | | | 4 | 1 | 15 |
| Vice President for Administrative Affairs | | 1 | | 1 | | | | | |
| Vice President for Development | 1 | | | | | | | | 1 |
| Vice President for Fiscal Affairs | | | | | | | | | 1 |
| Vice President for Institutional Research | | | | | 1 | | | | |
| Vice President for Public Relations | | 1 | | | | | | | |
| Vice President for Student Affairs | | | 2 | 1 | | 1 | 2 | | 6 |
| Total | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 1 | 27 |

## Age-Related Factors

The research question to be considered under this category is: Are there age-related factors which have influenced the careers of women in senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education?

### Transitional Periods

There were no questions on the interview guide designed specifically to address transitional periods; rather, such periods were determined by analyzing the entire interview data for changes reported by the subjects. The changes examined were career changes, changes in familial relationships, and personal changes. Any change which was reported as requiring an evaluation of one's life, occurring during a period of emotional discomfort, and resulting in the setting of new goals and commitments for future living was considered a transitional change. To be a transitional change there had to be a clear recognition of one's life being different following a transition than when it began. For every career change reported during the interviews, each subject was asked the reasons for making such a change. Any reported relationship change or change in self was likewise examined. Transitions were listed for each subject by the age of the subject at its occurrence.

Transitional periods were determined by comparing the frequency of similar ages at the occurrence of such changes. After grouping by ages, transitional periods were classified by the different types of changes reported.

As Table 10 shows, all subjects reported more than one transition. Two transitional periods were reported by 8 (18% of the 44) subjects, three transitional periods were reported by 16 (36% of the 44). Four such periods were reported by 14 (32% of the 44) subjects, and five transitional periods were reported by 6 (14% of the 44) subjects.

Table 10

Number of Transitions by Number of Subjects

| Number of Transitions | Number of Subjects | Percent of Subjects |
|---|---|---|
| 2 | 8 | 18 |
| 3 | 16 | 36 |
| 4 | 14 | 32 |
| 5 | 6 | 14 |

## Age-Linked Transitions

Transitional periods were age-linked to the change of each decade: 17-23, 27-33, 37-43, 46-53, and 57-60. The first transitional period typically began at age 17, with a range of 15 to 18. It ended between 21 and 24, most often at age 23.

The second transitional period typically began at age 27, with a range of 26 to 30. It ended between 31 and 34, most often at 33.

The third transitional period typically began at age 37, with a range of 36 to 42. It ended between 38 and 44, most often at 43.

The fourth transitional period typically began at age 46, with a range of 46 to 52. It ended between 50 and 54, most often at 53.

The fifth transitional period typically began at age 57, with a range of 56 to 59. It ended between 59 and 61, most often at 60.

The longest duration reported for being in transition was 8 years and the shortest, 1 year. The average for the total number of years in transitions by all 44 subjects was 3.4 years per transition.

While a transition could not be identified for all subjects at each decade, most subjects experienced from 5 to 11 years between transitions. These years were described as a time of working to achieve the newly set goals.

### Unconfirmed Transitions

The beginning of this investigation (high school graduation) was marked as a transitional period (17-23) for all the subjects. Of the 44 subjects in this study, 39 (89%) mentioned a series of changes at the second transitional period (27-33). One subject for whom a transition could not be established was a homemaker. Her resume indicated her first community involvement to be at the age of 27; however, the subject reported this involvement to be for her children's benefit, which may have been a continuation of her original homemaking goal.

A second homemaker subject was divorced by her husband during this period and was forced to seek employment. This subject reported the care of her children still to be her goal at this period, stating she had no intention or desire ever to work. The day after her children told of being teased by schoolmates, the subject quit her first job and immediately moved. The subject insisted, "I was still determined to put my homelife first." While this subject encountered emotional discomfort and several changes during this period, a new goal could not readily be identified.

A third subject completed her degree and went to work during this period, but this had been her goal when she began college at 18. An extended illness had forced her to delay completion until this age.

The fourth subject moved from higher education teaching to administration, but this change had been the subject's goal since she was 24. The fifth subject made a career change but credited her superiors with the decision to do so; therefore, it could not be determined if this move represented a new goal.

Of the 40 subjects who were 37 years of age and older, 31 (78%) reported a transition around the age of 40 (37-43), but for 9 subjects a transition could not be identified at this time. Four subjects made no verbal report of any changes during this period, and their resumes did not indicate changes. A fifth subject did not report any changes at this time, but the resume of this subject indicated a series of grant and fellowship involvements between ages 38 and 44. A sixth subject reported being sent by her superiors to obtain the terminal degree. While the subject called this change one that she was needing, she did not have a goal for use of the degree. The subject suspected that she would be moved into administrative work, but she did not have any assurance of a job change. A seventh subject quit a job to obtain education through a government program, but her reason was to be able to better provide for her children who were still her only goal in life. An eighth subject left homemaking to teach at the age of 37, but had it not been for rules regarding nepotism at the institution this subject would have begun teaching 5 years earlier. Therefore, teaching was not considered a new goal for this subject. The ninth subject for whom a transition could not readily be confirmed moved into an administrative position at age 39. This subject reported she had never set her goal on administration but had been gradually assigned such responsibilities. The subject admitted not even recognizing what she was learning at the time.

Near the change of the next decade (46-53), 27 (93%) of the 29 subjects aged 46 and older reported a transition. While one subject made no mention of any change during this period, her resume did show that she spent a semester teaching abroad. Another subject who reported no changes mapped out her long-range career path, including a predicted change in three years. This subject appeared to be struggling with future career options, as though she were beginning a transition, but as yet no external changes could be identified.

At the next decade change (57-61), 9 (90%) of the 10 subjects aged 57 and older reported a transitional change. The subject who did not report any change during this period related having several things she wanted to accomplish in her present job, but the subject did have future plans for returning to the classroom.

As Figure 9 shows, all subjects experienced a transition between the ages of 17 and 23. Of these subjects 89% reported a second transitional period between the ages of 27 and 33. The 37-43 transitional period was reported by the smallest percentage (78%) of subjects. The two remaining transitional periods were reported by 93% and 90%, respectively.

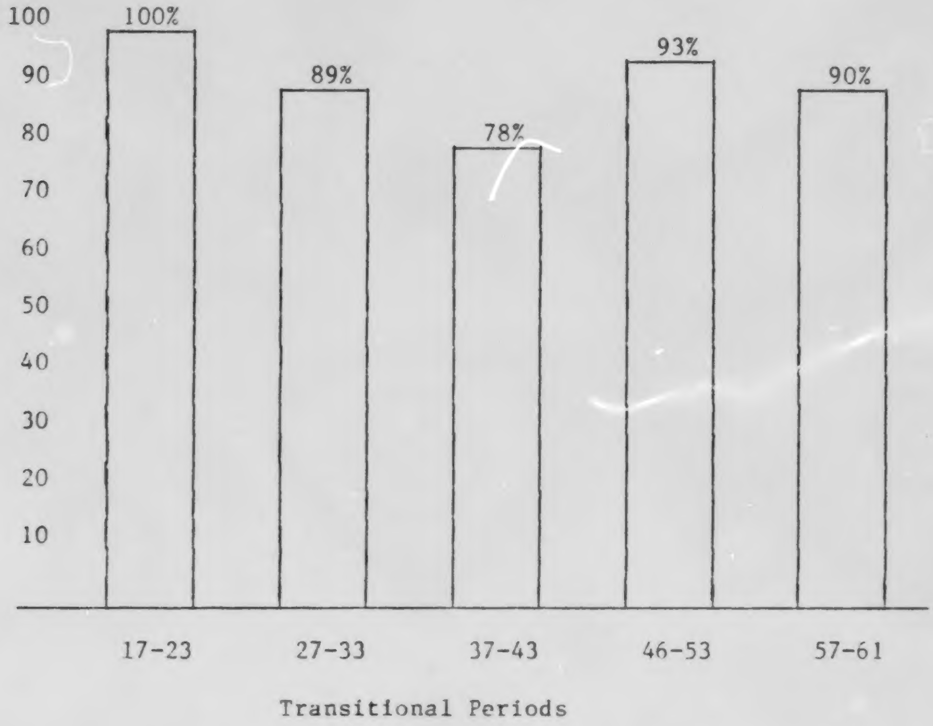


Figure 9. Percentage of subjects by transitional period.

### Transitional Factors

Although presenting problems in ways which required different kinds of changes, the same factors were prevalent at each transition:

(a) Evaluating Careers, (b) Settling, (c) Evaluating Marriages, (d) Mothering, (e) Evaluating Relationships with Parents, and (f) Evaluating One's Own Values. It was sometimes difficult for the subjects to identify each problem separately, as problems were often closely related.

When discussing prior transitional periods, the subjects often admitted having made decisions during these periods without a conscious understanding of such decisions. Only after reexamining the same factors at a later period could some subjects recognize all that was involved in their decisions. It was not uncommon to hear a subject say, "I don't think I realized it then . . .," or, "I refused to admit on a conscious level that the choices I was making. . . ." The external changes marking each transitional period will be discussed in expository form with the aid of tables and figures.

### Evaluating Careers

All subjects reported incidents relating to career evaluations. These evaluations are described below at the various transitional periods.

17-23 Transition. Deciding on and/or pursuing an academic degree in order to prepare for a career was a factor of concern during this transitional period for 36 (82% of the 44) subjects. Two subjects left high school with the pressure of knowing their future careers depended on obtaining a college scholarship. Both had been told by their fathers that obtaining a scholarship was a necessity. The subjects had been informed that any available funds would be utilized for the education of sons, since the sons would ultimately support families. Although these same fathers had frequently expressed how bright they thought the subjects to be, each subject faced further conflict upon winning a scholarship. One father tried to prevent the subject's college attendance which would require her moving to another state. The father of the other subject expressed strongly his desire for her life-style to be one of marriage and children rather than education.

Of the subjects studied 21 changed academic majors several times, with two or three trials being the pattern. The loss of credit hours with each change was described as a problem. One subject did not declare an academic major until her senior year. She declared, "This was a period of real tension in my life until I finally settled in."

Four subjects attended institutions that offered only teaching degrees; two related struggling over lack of funds for attending schools where they could prepare for more highly desired careers. Both completed their studies because they recognized teaching as being more attractive than other jobs that were obtainable without a degree. Another subject called this a crisis period because she was forced financially to discontinue her studies before obtaining a degree.

One subject expressed frustration and anger over not being allowed to pursue a degree in veterinary medicine. This subject and her father spent several months visiting every institution offering this course of study, only to be rejected because of her sex. This subject stated that she almost allowed her anger and disappointment to cause her to fail the courses for which she was eligible to enroll.

After obtaining baccalaureate degrees, four subjects secured first jobs which unsatisfying and, therefore, prolonged their transitional periods. Later, all returned to school for additional education in order to pursue alternative careers.

27-33 Transition. Of the 39 subjects who reported making changes in their lives during this period, 20 (51%) stated such changes originated from an evaluation of careers. All 12 subjects (60% of the 20) who were single at this time went through this process. While 27 of the reported subjects entered this period married or married during the period, only 8 (30% of the 27) married subjects recalled making a change because a career was a primary priority.

One married subject changed jobs after questioning her whole life style, especially her clerical job. She stated acknowledging her desire for an administrative job, although she did not have a preferred field of work at the time. She also had to acknowledge that such a career change could not be made while in her present marriage. She resolved the struggle in her life by deciding to acquire advanced education and to divorce her husband. She remarried after enrolling in school.

A second married subject recalled the year she was 27 as a period when she evaluated her career. Experiencing conflict as a member of the faculty, she reported discussing her career options with her two mentors on numerous occasions. She explored the options of moving into other departments within her own institution and eventually accepted her first administrative position. It was during this period that she made the decision to eventually become a vice president in higher education.

The only subject in this study with a long-range career plan worked 2 years in a private institution and then moved to a public institution. Such moves were reported to have been part of this subject's career goal of becoming a senior-level administrator. This subject's relocations were said also to have been productive for her husband's career advancement; however, the subject did state that any future moves for her own advancement would probably require separate households.

A fourth married subject divorced her husband and moved, stating, "I had decided what I wanted to do with my life." A fifth married subject, admitting that she needed a career, began doctoral work but encountered conflict from faculty who thought she should postpone her studies until she was older. The subject also faced discouragement for obtaining her advanced degree from peers in elementary education.

Although having children at this period, a sixth married subject placed her career as a top priority by bringing her small baby to her graduate classes. The subject continued this arrangement until she had a second child and obtained a babysitter. The subject continued the degree by scheduling her classes around the availability of the babysitter.

A seventh subject who had been a homemaker sought full-time employment. The subject reported her goal to be "to save the world by working with youth." The eighth married subject, whose transitional change placed emphasis primarily upon a career, completed the terminal degree, divorced her husband, and left her business employment to be employed as a teacher in higher education.

Of the 12 subjects who were single during this evaluation, 4 returned to college, 3 moved from jobs other than education to higher education, 1 left higher education, 1 resigned an administrative position to teach, and 3 changed educational institutions. One single subject who advanced to a chairman position during this period resigned after 2 years to accept a fellowship. This fellowship required that she relocate and leave higher education for slightly over a year. This subject stated being dissatisfied with her education department and with her inability to make needed changes. The subject reported leaving in order to learn how to motivate her institution to learn more about a particular topic.

A former departmental chairman reported wrestling with her present (then) responsibilities and her desire to write a book. Ultimately this subject returned to full-time teaching, stating, "I was 30 when I realized I had not written a book. I knew it was time for me to do so."

A subject was asked at the age of 29 to accept a college presidency. It took several months for her to answer this request. "Deciding I didn't want to be a college president was a very freeing experience. I no longer had to worry about which way was up," the subject related. The subject did, however, spend several months following this decision trying to decide what she wanted out of life. The subject then made two career moves during this period.

Two subjects, who accepted their senior-level administrative positions during this period, recalled these career decision as a time of great distress in their lives. Both subjects had been searching for career changes, so neither doubted wanting the positions; however, both were hesitant about the required relocations to accept the positions. The time before and after the moves were described in negative terms. One subject stated she moved only because her mentor told her, "Either go get this kind of experience or quit complaining because you cannot advance on this campus."

The remaining subjects reported being in a rut, needing the learning experience, and having stayed as long as could be tolerated as their reasons for making changes. As one subject reported, "I was feeling a pressure to be getting on with my life whatever it was to be." Another subject admitted, "I can take something about 4 or 5 years without being bored, and I tolerate it for 6 or 7, but then I have to get out."

37-43 Transition. Of the 31 subjects who experienced a transition at this phase, 27 (87%) reported struggling with a desire for a career change. Of the 18 subjects who were married when entering this period of transition, 17 (94%) concentrated on careers, and 10 (77%) of the 13 single subjects reported career changes.

A dean, two departmental chairwomen, and a member of the faculty decided during this phase to become senior-level administrators. The dean tried unsuccessfully for a presidency. Recognizing a pressure to change positions, she examined the possibility of returning to school for another PhD and seeking employment in business. As she began exploring these plans, she received an invitation from her successful presidential rival to be a vice president. The two chairwomen both mapped out career plans for advancem[illegible], and both recognized the need to change institutions. The faculty member initiated discussions about her options for advancement at her employing institution.

Three former college teachers and a former elementary teacher all related being bored with teaching and admitting they could not continue in teaching careers. The elementary teacher sought employment in higher education and began graduate studies. Two college teachers moved into administrative positions, after struggling 4 years with career decisions. As one stated, "This was the first time I ever thought of putting any emphasis on my career." The remaining college teacher accepted a position at a research laboratory.

During this period three additional subjects were employed in higher education to teach. One subject returned after having interrupted her career for 11 years to be a homemaker. The second subject left juvenile court work to teach in higher education when the subject's husband convinced her she could be more effective doing preventive rather than remedial work with young people. The third subject's teaching position forced her to choose between a teaching contract and a failing marriage. Due to rules regarding nepotism at the institution, the subject's contract would have been voided had the subject returned to live with her husband.

Four subjects were offered administrative positions during this period. The subject who was offered a senior-level position did not want to leave her newly initiated projects, and the subject recommended men whom she thought would accept the position. One subject interpreted her offer of an administrative position to mean she was no longer wanted by her faculty department. The third subject's offer required the subject to change institutions and included a huge salary offer. This subject stated that she did not want to move, but her present institution refused to offer any salary increase. Disliking her new location, this subject married a man in another part of the country in an effort to move again. The man, however, wanted to move to the subject's state. After 2 years of such conflict, this subject did relocate but divorced her husband shortly thereafter. The fourth subject accepted a position as an acting provost. Near the end of this assignment, the subject recognized that she would never be content to return to her former position. "I knew I had to get out of there," the subject related.

One subject handled her transitional period by resigning from a teaching position where, as she described it, "I was accomplishing nothing but keeping myself upset." This subject moved her children to an isolated area and had no professional involvements during the year she was 40. The next year the subject decided to join the administrative ranks in order to help create changes in education.

Another subject who experienced a career evaluation reported being forced to examine her present and future career goals when she was offered a job in business. The subject's decision was to remain in her present senior-level position and invest her money for future returns.

Two older subjects recalled beginning entirely different careers during this period. Both subjects returned to college for advanced degrees, and both sought support of their endeavors. One found a mentor. The other subject selected an advisor who was capable of raising her consciousness. These subjects were designing what both called a "second life."

One subject approaching 40 was struggling with a mid-life career change when interviewed. The subject reported being from a family which had a history of changing fields at mid-life. This subject related being under an extreme internal time pressure to establish a successful business. The subject reported knowing she could be successful in a few years, but this subject demanded instant success. "I don't need the money . . . it's just that I need to make it by then. Don't know what either in my background or my psyche demands I make it by then . . . simply don't know . . . just know I have to," the subject insisted. This subject was the only administrator who placed a time limit on achieving her personal goals by age 40.

One subject who evaluated her career attributed her crisis during this period to a combination of becoming 40 and obtaining a senior-level administrative position. The subject related experiencing a period of intense struggles for 1 1/2 years. During this time the subject felt pressed to establish goals, both personal and professional. The subject stated that she consciously worked through this crisis by talking with friends, writing numerous lists of goals, and driving around talking to herself. The subject defined this period as ending once she had established goals in both areas of her life.

As a result of career evaluations, five of the remaining six subjects returned to college as students. While on an educational leave of absence, one subject was offered an acting vice-presidential position. Being unable to adequately handle both the job and studies, the subject was ultimately forced to abandon the degree. The sixth subject reported feeling pressure for a career change at age 40. The subject decided to obtain a terminal degree, but she was discouraged by her chancellor who shortly offered the subject a job promotion.

Two subjects who did not report careers to be their primary emphasis at this period were asked to accept senior-level positions. Both admitted asking, "What does a vice president do?"

46-53 Transition. Of the 27 subjects experiencing a transition at this period, 21 (78%) reported changes resulting primarily from career evaluations. Of the 13 subjects who were married at this transition, 10 (77%) emphasized career changes, and 11 (79%) of the 14 single subjects reported concentrating on careers.

During this period three subjects enrolled as students. One subject did not complete a degree. This subject reported being frustrated over the similarities of a parent-child relationship the subject encountered with her professors. One of these three subjects, who worked in elementary education, reported wanting another degree in order to obtain 12-month employment. A fourth subject decided to become involved with her church after retirement, necessitating her immediate enrollment in a long-term preparation program.

A fifth subject who had remained a homemaker since obtaining the baccalaureate degree reported a desire for a career at this phase. The subject explored returning to school but could not decide upon a field of study. Before the subject made a decision, she was asked to apply for a senior-level position in higher education. The subject gladly accepted but stated that had she not been offered the position she would have found some career activity, as she was feeling, "a pressure for something else."

Five subjects made the decision during this period to either obtain their present senior-level positions or to attempt to advance to a higher administrative office. As one subject said, "I decided at 46 to become a president and knew I had to change institutions for the experience." Another such subject reported mapping out her career just before she was 50 and setting her goal on a presidency. The other subjects reported being in their late 40's when they discovered what they wanted in a job.

Another subject moved from the faculty into her administrative position during this period. This subject had requested a leave of absence from her teaching position where the subject described herself as, "getting nowhere as a member of the faculty." Prior to her leave, the subject was asked if she would be interested in administrative work. Following her leave the subject accepted the administrative position and advanced quickly to a senior-level position. Two years later the subject resigned. The subject reported wanting to leave administration but made application for such positions at two other institutions. The subject finally returned to the faculty, but at the time of the interviews the subject was discussing the possibility of doing research abroad.

Another subject left a full-time medical practice and teaching career to become an administrator in higher education but continued teaching. One subject accepted a senior-level position at this time only after recommending every man the subject thought would want the position. Another subject accepted the senior-level position during this phase because she was, "tired of high-profile jobs and ready for a position allowing you to lay under a shade tree and read books." The latter subject found senior-level administration frustrating and was formulating plans for other employment.

Two other senior-level administrators in transition were seeking other employment. Neither subject had ever set administration as their primary goals. One of these subjects had been forced to accept the position to remain employed at her institution. The other subject reported finding it impossible to remain a scholar in her field and be an administrator, a problem she had not foreseen.

Two subjects were fired during this period. One subject who was a senior-level administrator sought employment in business and stated that being fired only accelerated her most recently set goal. The other subject reported experiencing a traumatic year. Although fired, the subject was offered her present salary in a lesser position. Rather than accept this offer, the subject obtained a senior-level position in another section of the country and had experienced difficulty in adjusting.

One subject was amid a traumatic transition when interviewed. The subject described herself as, "burned out intellectually, physically, mentally, emotionally, and any other way you can be." This subject had resigned her senior-level position and had no professional or personal goals. The subject related regrets of not having lived a homemaker life style rather than being employed.

One subject who was a dean during this transitional period, moved to direct a graduate program. This subject reported that she had been staying busy but accomplishing little. When bypassed twice for promotions by someone the subject considered to be less qualified, the subject admitted that she had to leave. The remaining subject who experienced a career change at this period moved to help establish a new institution. The subject wanted the challenge of "being in on the ground floor."

57-60 Transition. Nine of the 10 subjects who were 57 or older reported a transition at this period. Eight (89%) of the 9 subjects who experienced a transition at this period reported making career changes. Three (38% of the 8) subjects were currently married and 5 (62% of the 8) subjects were single.

When fired, one subject struggled over her career and decided to return to teaching rather than to pursue administrative work. The subject's goal became to see if she could again be a scholar in her field.

Two subjects related being bored with present jobs during this period. Both subjects eventually attained senior-level administrative positions. A fourth subject reported changing institutions because she was needing a change and thought the new job would be fun.

A fifth subject left elementary education administration because she was frustrated with doing more work for less money than men. Moving into higher education, the subject accepted a senior-level administrative position 3 years later.

Having conflict as a faculty member, the sixth subject registered with a private employment agency and obtained a job in higher education as a dean. When asked to be a senior-level administrator 2 years later, the subject accepted but reported it as a difficult period. The subject was not sure that she understood administration well enough to accept a higher position.

The seventh subject had moved during this period to accept a deanship because it provided the challenge of beginning new programs. Three years later the subject was asked to resign from serving on a search committee which was to select a senior-level administrator and to submit her own resume.

The remaining subject who reported a career evaluation was attempting to relocate at the time of the interview. The subject reported being dissatisfied with her present area of the country. The subject was applying for senior-level positions.

During this age period seven subjects had tentatively formulated plans for remaining active after retiring. Two subjects had aspirations for being fund-raisers for private institutions, three were thinking of being teachers, one was planning to accept a deanship at another institution, and one was going to be an active participant in civic organizations.

Settling

Deciding whether to make a lifelong commitment to another person or to reserve that time and space for self was reported as a transitional factor for the subjects. Thirty-three subjects reported incidents relating to this factor as described in the various transitional periods shown below.

As Table 11 shows, 12 (27% of the 44) subjects in this study never married; 32 (73% of the 44) married at least once. Twenty-three (53% of the 44; 72% of the 32) subjects married only once. Eight (18% of the 44) subjects married twice, and 1 subject married three times.

Table 11

Total Number of Marriages

| Marriages | Number of Subjects | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| 0 | 12 | 27 |
| 1 | 23 | 53 |
| 2 | 8 | 18 |
| 3 | 1 | 2 |
| Total | 44 | 100% |

17-23 Transition. Two subjects ended relationships with special men during this period because making a marriage commitment would have required the subjects to discontinue their education. Another subject remembered this as being a troublesome time when she was forced to choose between marriage and beginning a career. Two other subjects reported making the decision to obtain the terminal degree before considering marriage.

Seven subjects reported making a commitment at this age to remain permanently single. As one stated, "I just wanted to see what I could do on my own." Five subjects reported being pressured by others to marry. One subject, whose parents married late, recalled her parents deflecting marriage pressure from other family members.

Six subjects who married during this period reported making a commitment to their relationships by obtaining jobs in the local area in support of husbands' jobs. All six had lived their entire lives in this same area.

27-33 Transition. Women who had not married by age 27 reported the external pressure from others for their marriage was now accompanied by an internal pressure to marry. This pressure to make marriage an integral part of their lives was described by one subject as "desperately wanting to marry" and by another as "a need for someone to share my life with." During this transition 10 subjects married for a first time.

Of the 44 subjects in this study, 32 married at least once. As Figure 10 indicates, the ages for first marriages ranged from 16 to 36, with a mean age of 23. Of the 32 subjects, 15 (47%) first married

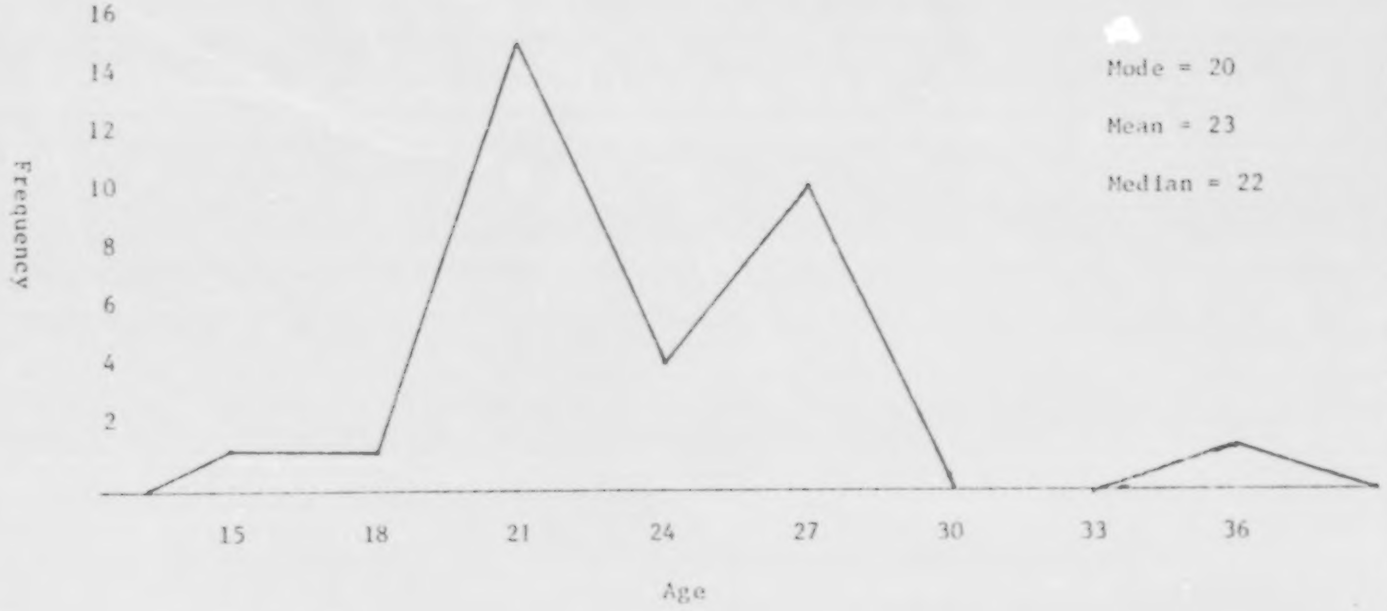


Figure 10. Number of first marriages by age.

between the ages of 19 and 29, and 10 (31% of the 32) subjects married for a first time between the ages of 26 and 28.

During this transitional period two subjects remarried. Both subjects reported making the commitment of never relocating for their own career advancement unless such moves would also be beneficial for their husbands' careers.

37-43 Transition. No subject experienced a first marriage during this period, but three subjects married for a second time. Two of these subjects admitted that their marriages did not represent relationship commitments, and both subjects also divorced during this phase. As a result of their marriages, the latter two subjects faced career relocations.

46-53 Transition. At this transitional period, three subjects related struggling with settling. For two of these subjects settling had never before been a primary factor in their lives, as the subjects recognized that their earlier goals had been to prove themselves in a career. Both subjects now acknowledged goal attainment. Both subjects questioned the possibility of rearranging their investment from careers to relationships; however, only one subject had a special man in her life at this time.

One of the subjects struggling with settling admitted accepting her senior-level administrative position with aspirations of meeting an eligible man. Another of these subjects was currently seeking employment in education in a different capacity because the subject believed it impossible to successfully combine a senior-level position and a relationship. The third subject reported seeking employment in areas other than education but admitted that she was considering retiring should she marry.

57-60 Transition. At this transitional period one subject who reported being ready to leave administration stated that one of her options might be a relationship commitment. This was the first time this subject had allowed herself this option since undergraduate years.

Summary-Settling. The foregoing statements represent 33 subjects who reported incidents relating to the factor of settling at the various transitional periods. Four subjects reported incidents relating to settling at two different transitional periods.

Single women who had remained receptive to marriage described their single status as being a result of just never meeting a man they wanted to marry. Other subjects viewed their career plans as ruling out the marriage option, as was indicated by one subject's statement:

> I always fully expected to marry but I just kept going further with my education, and I guess I made the decision unconsciously. As I got near the end, it became clear that the energy compelling me to get a doctorate would make a man even more remote.

### Evaluating Marriages

Evaluating one's present marriage was a transitional factor for 20 subjects. As a result some subjects recommitted to such relationships, and others terminated their marital relationships as is described below.

17-23 Transition. One subject faced the factors of evaluating marriage and mothering simultaneously during this period as she had married prior to high school graduation and had a child the following year. The subject took college correspondence courses while awaiting the birth of her child and made plans for her husband to also enroll in college, but it soon became obvious that they had conflicting aspirations. Admitting that she "did not want to remain in a small town in a tiny apartment" the rest of her life, the subject divorced her husband and turned to her parents for financial assistance and care of her small child. At the age of 18 the subject moved into a college dormitory.

One subject reported that her decision to marry at this age caused several months of conflict with her parents. Having sent her to college and to Europe to study, this subject's father feared she would abandon her career. The subject's teachers also discouraged her marriage.

Another subject reported having married during this period to have someone to depend upon, only to discover her husband wanted to depend on her. This subject worked to support her spouse while both were undergraduate students. During her senior year this subject's mentors counseled her to pressure her husband to accept employment upon graduation so that she could attend graduate school and then to obtain a divorce. The mentors insisted that it was the husband's turn to pay the expenses while she studied. The subject did as she had been encouraged.

27-33 Transition. In order to follow careers of husbands, 11 subjects moved during this period. Such moves forced 6 subjects to seek other employment; 5 subjects had previously been full-time graduate students. Two such subjects followed husbands to live for several years in South America.

Six subjects divorced during this period. Following divorces, five subjects relocated which forced job changes. The other subject remained in her senior-level administrative position. This was the only subject to divorce while in office.

Two subjects reported no real discomfort related to their divorce decisions. The remaining divorces represented decisions by the subjects which had resulted from a series of problems during this period.

Two subjects named professional competition as the basis of their marital difficulties. Another subject found herself succeeding in an advanced degree while her husband was failing, a situation which made compatibility impossible.

Three additional subjects reported that they had made decisions during this period to obtain divorces but did not do so until a later time. Two of these subjects remembered admitting that they needed a divorce during this period, but both stated being unable to overcome the social pressure and remained married for another 4 to 8 years. The third subject recognized during this period that her marriage was failing, and she struggled during these years with the question of how she would cope if divorced. By the end of this period, this subject had formulated plans for furthering her education before taking actions concerning her marital arrangements.

37-43 Transition. Six subjects obtained divorces during this transitional period, and five of these subjects relocated immediately. One of these subjects divorced, remarried, and divorced again in a

3 year period. This subject reported not having put enough thought into what she needed in a marriage before her second attempt. The subject admitted realizing immediately after the wedding that her second marriage should not have occurred. This subject credited her second divorce as forcing her into an identity crisis and a career conflict. This subject moved to follow her second husband's career and relocated following each of her divorces.

The subject who decided at the prior transitional period to acquire advanced education before divorcing obtained a divorce during this period. Another subject divorced, stating the reason to be conflicting values. Professional competition, coupled with the wife's new security of permanent employment, was the underlying factor related to another divorce. Two subjects who found themselves single again before this period ended admitted they had enjoyed being the suffering martyrs in bad relationships.

A subject who was widowed during this period decided to return to graduate school. This subject reported wanting to relocate and wanting something to occupy her time so she would not smother her children. The subject selected graduate school because she considered it a socially acceptable involvement.

To accept a senior-level administrative position, one subject established a separate household from her husband. The subject reported her husband as always pushing her to advance in a career and described relocating as being desirable for their children.

As Figure 11 shows, 17 (53% of the 32) married subjects obtained at least one divorce. The ages for obtaining first divorces ranged from 16 to 39, with a mean age of 31.4 years.

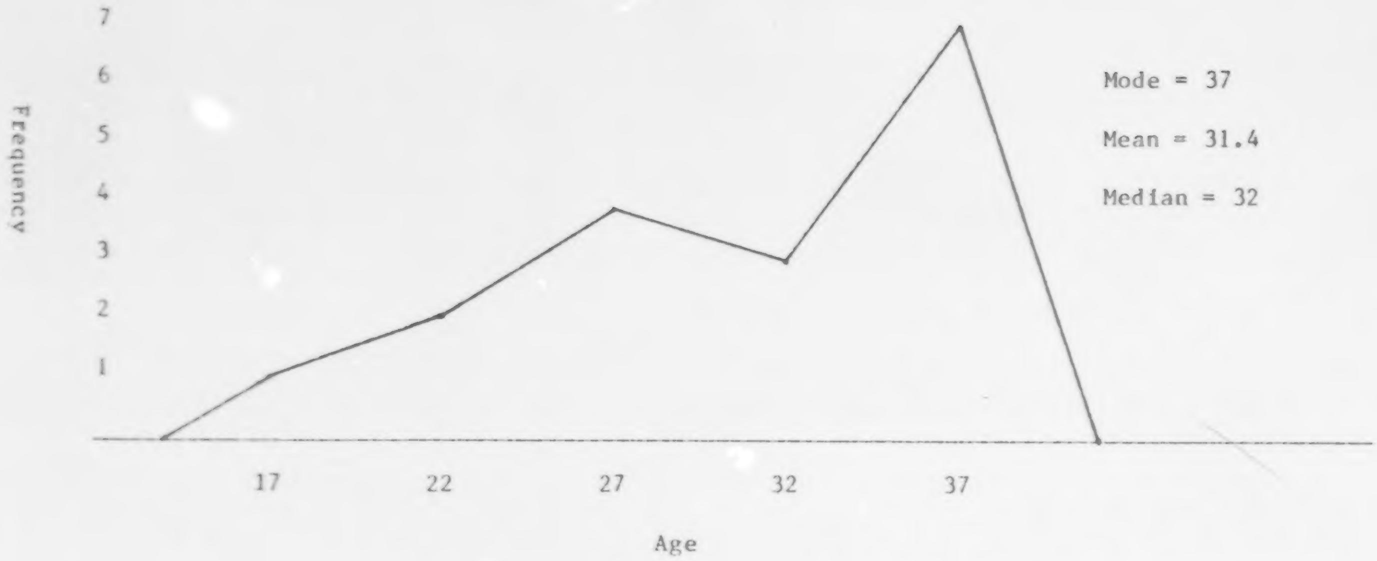


Figure 11. Number of first divorces by age.

Of the 32 married subjects, 15 (47%) never divorced. Three of these 15 subjects were widowed and none remarried.

46-53 Transition. One subject was widowed during this period. This subject had moved when it was discovered that her husband had a terminal illness, and she again moved upon his death.

Rather than resign her administrative position, one woman established a separate residence from her husband when the husband accepted a position in a neighboring state. One other husband accepted early retirement to move due to his wife's acceptance of a senior-level position.

One subject remarried during this period, and she relocated immediately for her husband's career. When faced with her third job change to follow her husband, this subject insisted upon establishing separate residences in order to place equal emphasis upon her own career.

57-60 Transition. Establishing a household separate from her husband was a decision for one subject during this period. This subject was forced to work out such an arrangement in order to accept an administrative position.

Summary--Evaluating Marriages. The foregoing statements represent 20 different subjects who reported evaluating marriages as a transitional factor. Of these 20 subjects, 8 reported this factor at two transitional periods and 4 at three periods.

## Mothering

Mothering was reported as a transitional factor at each transitional period. A total of 22 subjects reported confronting this factor, as is indicated below.

17-23 Transition. For the subject who married, had a child, and divorced during this age period, one of her transitional factors was mothering. This subject reported feeling guilty because she was able to enjoy college. The subject kept telling herself that she should be more occupied with missing the child she had left in the care of her parents. During the summers the subject moved into an apartment to bring her child to live with her.

27-33 Transition. The mothering factor of this transitional period for one subject resulted from a divorce decision. The subject's divorce was not described as a major decision, but its effects upon her children and her career required new goal setting. Although the divorce decision had been made, this subject would not leave her husband until she had the security of providing her own income. As the timing of this subject's decision was well into an academic year, the subject enlisted the help of friends in locating a teaching job. While waiting on job replies, this subject reported preparing her children for the changes a divorce would create. This subject could not have custody of all her children; the subject had to choose between her sons and a daughter. The subject decided, "I had to take the boys. They were older and could talk and would have known if they'd been left. My tiny daughter was her dad's favorite, so I knew she'd get better treatment."

Two subjects who had previously remained at home with small children reported changing their goals. One subject returned to college when she admitted that she would soon be getting a divorce. "I never envisioned myself as divorced with children. I knew I had to get myself ready," related this subject. The other subject also admitted having a failing marriage and sought employment in order to save enough money to return to school. This subject taught in a nursery school where she could take her own children with her.

For other subjects the factor of mothering at this period was the need to make a commitment to motherhood and the shift in priorities which resulted. Waiting until the age of 27 to marry, one subject described herself as needing to begin a family "immediately." Another subject stated wanting to "instantly plan a family." At ages 26 and 27, four married subjects sought medical assistance in hopes of having children, and as a result, one married subject decided to begin adoption procedures. At the age of 29 a single subject explored the possibility of adopting a child from another country. This subject, however, never completed the adoption process.

As Figure 12 shows, 22 (50% of the 44; 69% of the 32) married subjects had children. Ages of the mothers at the time of the first-born child ranged from 17 to 31, with a mean age of 26.

During this transitional period, 14 first-born children were born; 6 of these children were born when the mothers were at age 27. There were no first-borns to women older than 31, although additional children were born through age 35.

Subjects who gave birth during this period frequently described this event as "the most drastic change in my life." The birth of a child had pronounced effects upon careers. During this transitional period 11 subjects interrupted their careers for homemaking. These interruptions lasted from 1 to 12 years. No subject who was

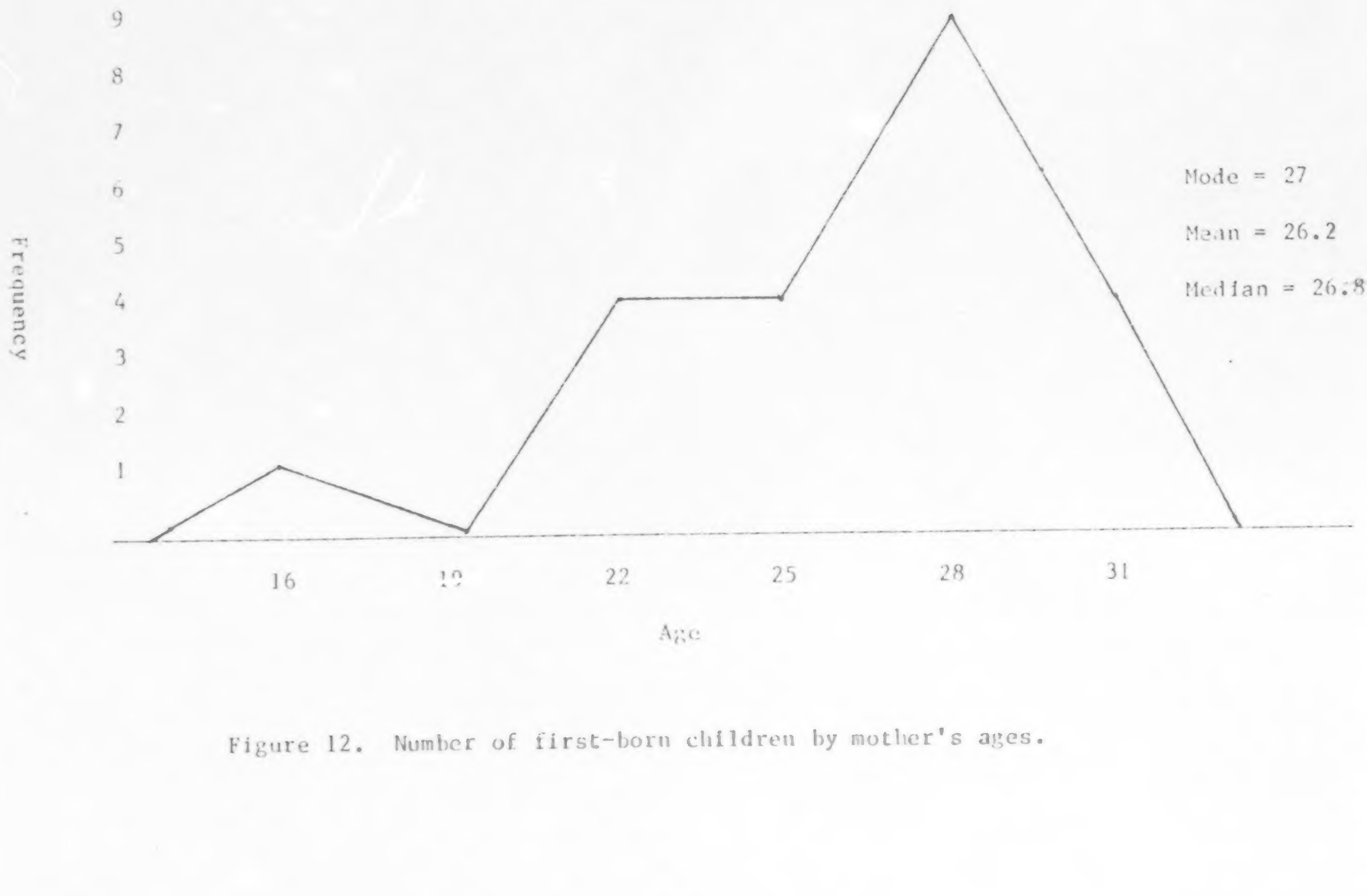


Figure 12. Number of first-born children by mother's ages.

younger than 45 at the time of the interview had taken a homemaking break.

Two subjects who had wanted children during this period had none because of their husbands' disapproval. One of these subjects reported living in frustration over her husband's attitude for 5 years (27-32). Recognizing that her husband would not change, the subject was finally able to resolve the problem by asking herself if she were put on earth only to reproduce. The subject never mentioned her desire to her husband again but poured her energies into charitable projects. This subject was the only childless subject to experience a career intermission for homemaking.

One subject received verbal criticism for bearing a child. This subject was a doctoral student, and her chairman strongly disapproved of the timing of her baby. The advisor did, however, encourage the subject to complete her studies by allowing her more flexible working hours on her assistantship. This subject reported feeling guilty over continuing her studies and described herself as "constantly apologizing to my husband's family for doing so."

*37-43 Transition*. During this period two subjects placed their children in boarding schools. One subject reported believing this to be a better decision than moving the children while she hunted a job. The other subject stated wanting to enjoy being with her children rather than always fighting over their homework schedule.

*46-53 Transition*. At this transitional period the problems of motherhood for one subject dealt with her accepting her children's needs to establish their separate identity. This subject admitted the relationship with her children "would be great if I'd just let go." The subject reported feeling divided over her children's desire for independence and her own desire to continue activities they had shared when the children were smaller.

One subject's struggle over accepting her senior-level administrative position included her son's hesitancy to relocate. When given the opportunity of remaining and completing high school before moving, the son decided to accompany his mother.

*57-60 Transition*. Mothering was a factor during this period for a subject with a dependent, handicapped child. This subject felt forced to plan for the care of her child in the event of her own death.

*Summary--Mothering*. The foregoing statements represent 22 subjects who reported on the factor of mothering. Three subjects reported mothering as a transitional factor at two transitional periods, and 1 reported this factor at three transitional periods.

Not all married subjects wanted to have children. One subject stated, "I am not one of those women who needs children. I guess the desire for children is a psychological thing I put out to my nieces and nephews." A similar statement was related by two other subjects, and two more reported filling a nurturing role with students.

### Evaluating Relationships with Parents

The relationships the subjects had with parents was reported as a transitional factor. All subjects reported on this factor as shown below.

*17-23 Transition*. For 32 (73% of the 44) subjects in this study, the relationship with parents at this age included the parental expectation of the subject's college attendance. Family conversations were described as being in terms of "when you go" rather than "if you go." One subject described her college attendance being as natural an expectation as teething.

Thirty-eight subjects reported having a father present in their homes during this period, with 18 (47% of the 38) citing the father as being the motivating person responsible for their college attendance. Fathers' motivational roles varied among the subjects; examples included insisting on the subject's college attendance and providing financial assistance, visiting the subject each weekend to discourage homesickness, and pleading before his death for the subject to complete the degree.

Eight subjects reported both parents as being equally supportive of education beyond high school. Three such subjects indicated their fathers received the most pleasure from their educational accomplishments; e.g., reading their term papers and boasting about their grades.

Two subjects reported attending college because they did not wish to continue the life-style of their parents. One subject received discouragement from both her parents when she announced her interest in graduate school.

Of the 44 subjects studied, 36 moved away from their parents' homes when they went to college. One subject lived at home for 2 years before transferring to a college in another state. "It just seemed like the right time to do so. We were beginning to get on each other's nerves," she stated. All women reported returning home occasionally on weekends and at holidays.

One subject planned to enter a convent, but she waited 2 years before taking her religious vows since this would limit her trips home to one every 5 years. While waiting for a younger sister to enter the convent with her, she attended college, participated in musical activities, and dated young men to ensure that her decision to enter the convent was the correct step to take.

Financial considerations forced five subjects to postpone moving from the parents' household until graduation from college. Three subjects then accepted jobs in locations some distance from their parents, reporting that breaking with the family setting was the major reason for selecting the particular jobs. Two subjects left home to attend graduate school. Although older than subjects who left home after completing high school, these five subjects reported experiencing a gradual emotional weaning process. One stated, "I often drove home on Friday nights, getting there about 3:00 a.m. and leaving after church on Sunday."

Two subjects did not move from parents' homes until they married. Both subjects indicated regrets because of not having moved sooner. "Living at home until I married at 27 was the biggest mistake I ever made," was reported by one subject.

The process of becoming autonomous was described as a period of intense struggle for one subject. The mother of the subject continually presented the subject with mixed messages, encouraging high individual achievement but contradicting this by suggesting that the subject find an educated man on whom to totally depend. This mother died when the subject was 20. The subject described her mother's death as, "a great mercy for me. I had many problems in trying to extricate myself from her."

27-33 Transition. The major problems encountered with parents at this period centered on the pressure parents were applying for subjects to marry and to have children. One subject reported resolving this problem by spending over a year in letter writing and long distance telephone calls. The subject reported having to convince her parents that she was not opposed to their ideas, but at the same time trying to make them understand that she was not going to seek a husband just because they felt it was time for her to do so.

In most instances the persisting person was the mother. The six subjects who experienced parental pressure described this factor in the following ways: "Mother does not approve of my life-style; and while dad is proud of me, he, too, would rather have seen me rear half a dozen children." "She thinks I am robbing her of her identity as a grandmother." "Mother is extremely child-oriented and applied a lot of pressure when I returned to graduate school. Her fantasy now is that I will marry a man with children."

One married subject's problem with a parent at this period stemmed from bringing a parent to live in her home. This move was reported as a troublesome decision, but one for which the subject could find no other option.

37-43 Transition. Nine subjects reported establishing more mature relationships with their parents at this period. As one subject related, "While a parent never stops being a parent, all I have to do now is remind her I am over 40, and she will hush. Now she's my best friend."

One subject reported that she questioned her relationship with her parents when she observed the way her parents reacted to her brother's divorce. The subject was 37 when this happened. Being unable to resolve all the problems in her life, this subject consulted a physician who told the subject to establish her priorities and live by them. This subject described her initial role in the relationship as one of a servant on demand but receiving no reward. After painful restructuring, she no longer met demanding requests from her parents unless it was convenient for her.

Another subject described her renewed interest in a relationship with her parent. "At age 39 I took an interest in familial things. I bought a resort with my dad. Ten years ago I would never have thought of going into business with him," the subject described.

Three subjects had parents come to live with them during this period. With one subject's acceptance of an administrative position, she related rearranging her entire schedule, especially her social activities, to include her parents. One subject reported taking her father with her to graduate school, and upon returning to her job the subject was faced with a daily schedule of going home at noon to prepare lunch for her father. The third subject reported having to leave work promptly each day. Taking in a parent had created cramped housing arrangements, and such closeness created friction between the parent and the children of this subject.

During this period one subject pursued a position which would enable her to relocate near an ill parent. Two other subjects related assuming the financial support for parents during this period.

46-53 Transition. One subject reported being tied to her present area because of her parents. Weekends of the subject were committed to visiting her parents, who were living in a nursing home several miles away. This subject called her problem one that was unique to middle-age:

> I have to be both a child and a parent, and that creates difficulty because I have to flip back and forth in these roles constantly. Now I'm mostly in the role of parent with them. I don't handle this well. It's very difficult.

Another subject took a parent to live with her during this period. Two parents living in homes of subjects died during this period, which was described as a time of great discomfort by both subjects. Both had been devoting all time away from their jobs to caring for parents.

57-60 Transition. One subject struggled over her relationship with a dependent parent during this period. Not wanting to be left alone, this parent discouraged the subject's attendance of professional activities and asked the subject to spend more time away from her job.

Summary--Evaluating Relationships with Parents. All 44 subjects mentioned evaluating relationships with parents as a transitional factor once. This factor was reported at two different transitional periods by 11 subjects, and at three transitional periods by 7 subjects.

### Evaluating One's Own Values

Twenty-seven subjects reported a process of evaluating previously held values at each transitional period. This evaluation is described below.

17-23 Transition. Nine subjects in this study reported a process of examining and searching for a religious value throughout the undergraduate college years. Two of these subjects again struggled with this factor at later transitional periods. The development of individual religious values was typically described by the subjects as being closely correlated with independence from parents. "I'd go to church with mom and dad when I was home, but I never told them I wasn't going any other time," was the response of one subject. Another subject, who never revealed her religious opinions to her parents, stated that her "mother would still roll over in her grave if she knew I didn't go to church." This subject was in her 50's.

One subject related a value struggle over appropriate sex role endeavors. Having never felt very feminine, the subject remembered consciously striving to fulfill a very feminine role. During this period the subject made the decision not to get a terminal degree as she considered this a masculine endeavor. Although she recognized that her husband would have preferred her as an intellectual partner, the subject felt such a degree would be competing with him and would not be a feminine act.

27-33 Transition. Three subjects reported value struggles that were related to other listed factors. A subject who had refused a job promotion at the age of 29 reported an extended period of questioning what she wanted out of life, how she could best express her needs, and what would make her feel successful.

One subject who had struggled over having a child reported "trying to find myself" for an extended period of time. The subject was not finding her present endeavors completely fulfilling.

Another subject reported reexamining an earlier religious decision. The subject stated being 32 before she was sure the decision she had made was her own.

Three subjects who were in their early 30's reported experiencing an internal pressure to achieve. One subject reported dreading the coming year because of her concern about how much she had accomplished this year. A subject just past the age of 35 related, "It is unforgivable if I haven't accomplished by now."

37-43 Transition. Internal struggles were characteristic of this period. Subjects reported asking, "Who am I?" "What am I all about?" "Where am I going?" "What's really important?" The "identity crisis," as this period was labeled by three subjects, proved so general that it was difficult to separate the number of subjects who were struggling with each internal problem. Some subjects could only report this time in life as a difficult period and when queried as to what was difficult, they still only replied, "Everything. All I had ever believed in was being analyzed." Some subjects would provide no further explanation.

The first factor appeared to be their acceptance of being 40 years of age. "Forty means I'm half-way . . . sort of stranded," stated one subject. Three subjects related concern over grey hair, and another no longer liked having her picture taken as this served as a reminder of her aging.

An older subject recalled being asked at age 42 to return to a job she had previously held and "discovering I was an adult." "This was my first awareness of being a woman and not a girl," the subject stated.

The first recognition of the finitude of life was related by two subjects. One subject stated, "I realized a few years ago (at 43) I would die and life would go on . . . rather shocking and painful thing to think about." Another subject reported that the death of a long-time pet reminded her of her own aging.

Subjects reported placing new emphasis on health during this period. Many initiated physical activities for the first time in their lives. Jogging and visits to a health spa were commonly reported, as were diets. One subject related seeking medical checkups for a preventive rather than a remedial effect. "I just haven't had one in a long time. It's about time I started going on a regular schedule before I really need one," related this subject.

Subjects at this transitional period reported purchasing houses and insurance policies for their first time. They stated that prior to this time, such money would have been used for clothing or trivia.

At 37, while preparing her vita for a senior-level position one subject questioned herself about outcomes should she be rejected. "Realizing my self-worth had nothing to do with a title was a big step for me," stated the subject. Another subject reported discovering that she was worthy of her pay and title even if she did not complete all her job-related tasks. One subject related rejecting herself unless she was reading serious books prior to this period.

One subject reported wrestling with confusion over an appropriate sex role for herself after she divorced. Holding traditional views for women, this subject feared people would think her homosexual when she began a life alone.

One subject reported reevaluating her earlier decision regarding religion. The subject reported reading her Bible and attempting to understand the importance religion had played in her late teen years and to understand her reasons for leaving this factor out of her life since that age.

One subject recalled wanting to do some things on her own during this period. For the first time she attended professional meetings alone. "I let go of some dependency patterns I had never realized I had until now. Suddenly I needed freedom to learn to go alone," she said. Another subject reported attending social activities alone. As the subject stated, "I can now go to plays and concerts by myself and have fun. It doesn't matter anymore." One subject, who reported this period to be a traumatic time, stated that upon resolving her problems she realized, "When all is said and done, there is no one responsible for me but me."

46-53 Transition. One subject described herself as facing an identity crisis similar to that reported by other subjects at the 37-43 transitional period. The subject stated, "I might like myself if I'd get to know me. I've never taken time to do this." This subject had not reported a transition since the age of 30.

Upon the death of a spouse, one subject returned to graduate school against the pleas of her family. The subject's motivation was to establish her own identity, no longer as a married partner.

The subject who feared people would think her homosexual following a divorce and pursuing a career at the 37-43 transitional period reported again struggling with such feelings at this period after accepting her senior-level position. The subject reported resolving her fear after accepting her need for independence and power, traits the subject had considered masculine. Accepting these needs as compatible with being feminine, the subject realized that sex-role confusion had nothing to do with sexual preferences.

One subject reported struggling with trying to live a feminine stereotyped role when she found herself single at this period. The subject stated that she would enjoy her senior-level administrative role if it were not for having to attend social functions as a single woman, an image she did not consider feminine.

57-60 Transition. During this period one subject reported needing to prove herself competent as a reaction to being called a token woman. For 2 years she did tasks herself rather than delegating work to men in an effort to prove, "I could do it as well as anyone."

Summary--Evaluating One's Own Values. The foregoing statements represent the 27 subjects in this study who were able to describe specific questioning of their values. The subjects who alluded to experiencing problems near the age of 40 but were unable to be more specific were not included. Of the 27 subjects, 4 reported this factor to be present at two transitional periods, and 1 subject reported such factors at three transitional periods.

Summary of Transitional Factors

As Table 12 shows, during the 17-23 transitional period the subjects were expected, especially by fathers, to obtain a college degree. The subjects had to decide on a field of study during this period, and if they chose to marry, worked at combining marriage and education. Subjects with children depended upon parents for child care, and at the same time the subjects had to determine a means of moving from the homes of parents. During this period some subjects searched for a religious value of their own.

During the 27-33 transitional period all subjects who remained single centered their transitions on careers. Subjects emphasizing careers experienced an urge to achieve, even if they had no specific goals. Other subjects placed primary importance upon establishing families, often receiving pressure from their mothers. Subjects who married placed more importance on careers of husbands, often interrupting their own careers for homemaking. Subjects who previously lived a homemaker life-style most often left the home for work or school involvements.

During the 37-43 transitional period more married than single subjects examined their careers, and many began their first long-range career planning. There was a high divorce rate during this period with limited commitments made to relationships. Career moves now considered the children's educational stability. An interest was shown in familial involvements, and responsibility was assumed for parents. This period was described frequently as an identity crisis period when

Table 12

Transitional Factors

| Factor | (Ages) 20 | 25 | 30 | 35 | 40 | 45 | 50 | 55 | 60 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Careers | Deciding/ obtaining academic degree | 51% of all transitional changes (30% of married, all single). Exploring another career option. | | 87% of all transitional changes (94% of married, 77% of single). Begin long-range career planning. | | 78% of all transitional changes (77% of married, 79% of single). Advance in career. | | 89% of all transitional changes (75% of married, 85% single). Plan for retirement. | |
| Settling | Choose marriage and/or career | Internal pressure to marry | | Limited relationship commitment | | Proven in career—switch to relationship commitment | | Receptive to marriage | |
| Marriage | Combine marriage/ education | Follow husband's career. More education before divorcing | | Divorce rate highest. Relocate | | Wife maintains job rather than follow husband | | Wife establishes separate household for own career | |
| Mothering | Parents care for child while in school | Pressure to have child. Interrupt careers for homemaking. Homemakers leave home. | | Career moves vs. child's school stability | | Allow child to establish separate identity | | Plan care handicapped child upon one's death | |
| Parents | College expectation (esp. by fathers). Leave parent's house | Pressured to marry (esp. by mothers) | | Interest in familial. Bring parents to live—assume financial responsibility | | Be a parent and child to parent. Death of parent | | Pressure to not leave parent alone | |
| Self-values | Search religious value | Urge to achieve | | Identity crisis (physical changes, death, self-worth, independence) | | Sex-role conflict | | Prove self capable | |
| (Ages) | 20 | 25 | 30 | 35 | 40 | 45 | 50 | 55 | 60 |

subjects questioned who they were and what they wanted out of life for themselves.

During the 46-53 transitional period married and single subjects placed equal emphasis on seeking advancement in careers. Doing so, for some subjects, created sex role conflict about what was appropriate for women. Married subjects no longer always moved in favor of their husbands' careers. Single subjects who had proven themselves in a career often were ready to invest their energies in relationship commitments. At this period subjects had to provide children with more freedom and to assume a more authoritarian role with parents.

During the 57-60 transitional period most transitional changes involved careers. Married subjects established households separate from husbands to accept administrative positions. Subjects formulated retirement plans and may have needed to prove themselves capable in jobs. Single subjects were receptive to marriage. Plans had to be made for the care of any handicapped children, and the pressure to not leave elderly parents alone had to be faced.

## Extra-Age-Related Factors

The research question under this category is: Are there extra-age-related factors which have influenced the careers of women in senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education?

Individual responses were grouped by topic: (a) current life status, (b) extra-familial involvement, (c) sense of self in world, (d) body awareness, (e) family of procreation, (f) family of origin, and (g) relationships with others. Where patterns of similar responses occurred, these topics were tabulated and summarized as extra-age-related factors. These topics are presented in expository form with the use of tables and figures.

The interview topic of hobbies will not be discussed, as there was no pattern of similar responses. Subjects of all ages listed both active and passive interests, and no particular activity or interest area appeared more often than others. All other interview topics will be discussed by those probes providing patterns of similarity. The different areas of relationships will be discussed only as these relationships affected the careers of the subjects.

## Current Life Status

The interviews in this study began with the question, "What is your life like at this point?" Subjects who responded were allowed to place emphasis on any areas of their lives and to discuss as many areas as they felt important. Subjects who experienced difficulty with the question were asked to describe a typical day. Such variations among these opening remarks presented problems with codification of the responses. Since the responses could not be organized into tabular form, this topic is presented with generalized statements that typified the subjects' comments.

The descriptive pattern of a subject's work involvement was one of long hours, numerous meetings, and problem solving. The time commitment of the subjects included one or two evening meetings, often a breakfast meeting, two to five luncheon meetings per week, and one entire weekend per month devoted to work. Although many of these meetings were described as social affairs, the topics of discussion were related to institutional business.

The greatest satisfaction derived from being a senior-level administrator was the diversity of challenges presented in such a position. The most frequently related reasons for having changed all prior positions, other than following husbands to new locations, were forms of boredom; e.g., being in a rut, needing a new challenge. An example of the type of sentiment expressed was explained by a subject who was a former teacher:

> I was getting very bored teaching the same courses. I had rearranged my presentations as many ways as I could and still cover the content. Then I began to offer the content in a workshop format, but you can only do these kinds of things so long. I knew I couldn't continue teaching all my life.

One subject in this study mentioned becoming bored while in her senior-level position. As the subject was exploring the possibilities of applying for another position, her institution employed a new president. With this new president, the subject was assigned additional responsibilities and was allowed to undertake projects that had previously been denied. These factors put new challenges back into the job which renewed the subject's interest in her present role.

Two negative aspects of a senior-level administrative position were mentioned by the subjects. The most frequently expressed was the total absorption of one's time. One subject, who had been in administration for several years, in reviewing her life said that her major regret was not having had enough time left after her job for developing friendships. Another subject credited the disorganization of her house and personal wardrobe to the lack of time for obtaining adequate household help and for shopping. One subject, who worked 70 hours a week prior to establishing a family life, reduced her time involvement to 50 hours a week and related:

> There are just never enough hours in the day to get everything done. As a result, I always feel like a rotten fink, but my private life is an important priority, so I just never get caught up. Yet, I have not resolved the fact that I don't.

Another negative factor related to the senior-level responsibilities of the subjects was the amount of energy required to resolve problems of others. One subject stated that there was someone in her office every minute of the day. The subject reported that by the time people reached her with problems, the problems were usually severe, as the people had already sought assistance at intermediate levels and had been dissatisfied with such help. Four subjects credited their lack of time for writing and research to the constant interruptions by people with pressing problems. One subject stated, "After a day of constantly nurturing others, I go home so tired that all I want to do is curl in the recliner and hide from the world." The goal of one subject was to get two particular department heads on her campus to understand each other's needs so that she was not constantly called upon to appease both.

If satisfaction can be measured by retainment in a position, 27 (61% of the 44) subjects in this study found senior-level administrative responsibilities fulfilling, as this number stated a desire to remain in their present position or to advance to the higher post. Eight subjects related plans for leaving their administrative positions but remaining in education. Nine subjects had plans to seek jobs other than education.

## Extra-Familial Involvements

The explanation of extra-familial involvements produced three categories: work, success, and dreams. These are discussed below.

### Work

As Table 13 shows, only 9 subjects reported working less than 50 hours a week. The remaining 35 (80% of the 44) subjects related 50 to 85 hour work weeks.

Table 13

How Much Time Do You Spend on Work?

| Hours | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| 40 - 59 | 9 | 20 |
| 50 - 60 | 15 | 34 |
| 60 + | 17 | 39 |
| (1) 40-70, (1) 55-75, (1) 55-85 | 3 | 7 |
| Total | 44 | 100 |

Three subjects responded that they worked all the time. All implied that they never stopped talking of their work; e.g., to strangers in restaurants, to neighbors working in yards.

As Table 14 indicates, 22 (52% of the 42) subjects stated working for personal satisfaction, while 3 worked for financial reasons. Of the 42 subjects responding, 17 (41%) recognized the financial compensation received for their work as providing many of the pleasures they enjoyed, such as travel and clothes. Two such subjects stated doing the type of work they did for personal satisfaction but refusing to work if they did not receive a financial reward.

Table 14

Would You Say You Work More for Personal Satisfaction or Financial Rewards?

| | Of Those Who Responded Number and Percent Giving Each Response | |
|---|---|---|
| Response | Number | Percent |
| Personal Satisfaction | 22 | 52 |
| Financial Rewards | 3 | 7 |
| Mixed | 17 | 41 |
| Total Respondents | 42 | 100 |
| Number Not Responding | 2 | 2 |
| Total Population | 44 | x |

## Success

As Table 15 indicates, of the 42 subjects providing a personal definition of success, 9 (22%) subjects related success to having specific jobs. Six (14% of the 42) subjects defined success in undefined goals and tasks, and 15 (36% of the 42) subjects defined success in undefined goals and tasks which produced positive feelings. Six subjects defined success through self-actualizing statements, and 6 defined success through past achievements.

Table 15

What Is Success for You?

| Response | Of Those Who Responded Number and Percent Giving Each Response | |
|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent |
| Success in Specific Job | 9 | 22 |
| Success in Undefined Goals/Tasks | 6 | 14 |
| Success in Undefined Goals/Tasks with Positive Feelings | 15 | 36 |
| Success in Self-actualizing | 6 | 14 |
| Success in Past achievements | 6 | 14 |
| Total Respondents | 42 | 100 |
| Number Not Responding | 2 | 2 |
| Total Population | 44 | x |

In defining success through a specific job, the subjects made such comments as "having a professional job and being rewarded" and "how well you have done in a job, how far you have gotten, and how fast you got there." Definitions offered for success in undefined goals and tasks were "achieving a goal whatever the goal" and "doing anything so that it works." Definitions for success in undefined goals and tasks with positive feelings included "doing something I really feel good about" and "making a difference at something I enjoy." Success in self-actualizing terms was described as "personal fulfillment and being happy" and "satisfaction with myself . . . A+." Examples of success in past achievements were "being satisfied with what you have accomplished" and "to have had the opportunity to influence the lives of others."

Of the nine subjects defining success in terms of a specific job, five (56%) of the subjects' were in their 30's. The ages of five (83%) of the six subjects who defined success in self-actualizing terms were in their 50's; the sixth subject's was in her 30's. The subjects who defined success in past achievements were in their late 50's and 60's.

## Dream

As Table 16 indicates, 12 (29% of the 41) subjects in this study were unable to relate any dream for future living. Of the 41 subjects, 15 (37%) expressed dreams related to work, and 14 subjects related dreams to things other than work; e.g., traveling, marrying, writing novels.

Table 16

What Is Your Dream for the Future?

| Responses | Of Those Who Responded<br>Number of Percent Giving Responses | |
|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent |
| No Dream | 12 | 29 |
| Work Dream | 15 | 37 |
| Other Dream | 14 | 34 |
| Total Respondents | 41 | 100 |
| Number Not Responding | 3 | 3 |
| Total Population | 44 | x |

Of the subjects having no dreams, 4 (33% of the 12) subjects were in their 30's and 5 (42% of the 12) were in their 60's. Such responses by those in their 30's were "I don't know. Looking down the road 20 to 25 years scares me." Responses of those in their 60's were, "It is too late to be asking me now," and, "I don't have a dream. There are some things I want to do, but I have no dreams."

## Sense of Self in World

The exploration of self in world produced three categories: personal values, social awareness, and time. These categories are listed below.

### Personal Values

Looking at personal values the subjects explored three areas: religion, politics, and homosexuality. These areas are discussed below.

Religion. As shown in Table 17, 17 (41% of the 41) subjects related affiliation with a religious group as an important factor in their lives. Of the 41 subjects, 20 (49%) reported no affiliation with organized religious groups but related the positive impact religious values had made on their ethics and philosophies of life. Two subjects reported being agnostics, and 2 subjects were atheists.

Table 17

What Part Does Religion Play in Your Life?

| | Of Those Who Responded Number and Percent Giving Each Response | |
|---|---|---|
| Response | Number | Percent |
| Supports/Participates in Organized Religious Groups | 17 | 41 |
| Rejects Organized Religious Groups but Holds Religious Values | 20 | 49 |
| Not Religious | 4 | 10 |
| Total Respondents | 41 | 100 |
| Number Not Responding | 3 | 3 |
| Total Population | 44 | x |

One subject stated that her religion was "the only thing that would ever take precedence over my job." Another subject credited her career success to her faith, and one subject reported beginning each work day with a devotional in her office.

Two subjects who placed little emphasis upon religion in their own lives did, however, provide the opportunity for religious training in the lives of their children. One subject attended an organized religious group regularly with her children, and the other subject enrolled her child in a parochial elementary school.

Politics. One subject reported strong support for a particular political party. The remaining 40 subjects who responded to this topic reported voting split tickets in supporting certain candidates. Four subjects had actively campaigned for candidates; one had taken a leave of absence from her administrative position to support her husband's candidacy for political office. Five subjects had at some point in their lives envisioned themselves as being public servants. One subject openly stated that she attained her senior-level position because of political astuteness.

As Table 18 indicates, three subjects credited their lack of political involvement to institutional policies. Eight subjects found politics interesting, but the majority (30; 73% of the 41) described themselves as having little political interest. "I am so a-political it is embarrassing," stated a typical subject. One subject could remember voting only once or twice in her entire life.

Table 18

What Part Do Politics Play in Your Life?

| Response | Of Those Who Responded<br>Number and Percent Giving Each Response: Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Little Interest and/or Involvement | 30 | 73 |
| Find Interesting and/or Involved | 8 | 20 |
| Would Like to Be Active but Not Allowed | 3 | 7 |
| Total Respondents | 41 | 100 |
| Number Not Responding | 3 | 3 |
| Total Population | 44 | x |

Homosexuality. As Table 19 indicates, 11 subjects reported biases against homosexuality. Of the 41 subjects, 18 (44%) related their feelings about this topic in positive ways; 7 subjects accepted homosexual friends, and 11 other subjects accepted such life-styles. Three subjects were unsure as to what value they placed on this sexual issue. Nine subjects expressed the idea that a person's sexual preference did not matter if a person's sexual conduct was privately maintained.

Table 19

What Are Your Feelings about Homosexuality?

| Response | Of Those Who Responded<br>Number and Percent Giving Each Response | |
|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent |
| Positive | 18 | 44 |
| Negative | 11 | 27 |
| Neutral | 3 | 7 |
| Mixed | 9 | 22 |
| Total Respondents | 41 | 100 |
| Number Not Responding | 3 | 3 |
| Total Population | 44 | x |

Social Awareness

Only 1 subject in this study had been personally active in an organized women's group; however, as can be seen in Table 20, 35 (85% of the 41) subjects credited the women's movement with having had a positive influence upon society. Two subjects stated resenting the type of influence created by the movement. One subject, while admitting the movement had made a positive impact for white women, believed the movement to have hurt black men. Three subjects were neutral towards the women's movement. Two of these subjects stated that they lived in environments where they had never encountered discrimination. Both subjects stated that their institutions had always treated women equally.

Table 20

Have You Been Influenced by the Women's Movement?

| Response | Of Those Who Responded<br>Number and Percent Giving Each Response<br>Number | <br><br>Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Positive | 35 | 85 |
| Negative | 2 | 5 |
| Neutral | 3 | 7 |
| Mixed | 1 | 3 |
| Total Respondents | 41 | 100 |
| Number Not Responding | 3 | 3 |
| Total Population | 44 | x |

Time

As Table 21 indicates, when 40 subjects were asked how they felt about time in regard to feeling young or old, child or adult, 5 (12%) subjects reported never feeling young. Twelve (30%) felt young but stated recognizing some physical limitations, and 23 (58% of the 40) subjects felt young.

Table 21

Do You Feel Young or Old, Child or Adult?

| Response | Of Those Who Responded<br>Number and Percent Giving Each Response | |
|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent |
| Never Felt Young | 5 | 12 |
| Young but Physical Limitations | 12 | 30 |
| Young | 23 | 58 |
| Total Respondents | 40 | 100 |
| Number Not Responding | 4 | 4 |
| Total Population | 44 | x |

All five subjects who did not feel young were in their 30's. Their responses were, "I have never felt young," and, "I have never been young or like a child. Mother used to say I was 11 going on 40." All subjects who expressed feeling young but having physical limitations were older than 49.

## Body Awareness

The subjects were asked, "How content are you being (age)?" Seven subjects made statements similar to one by a subject who said, "Oh, it would be great to be _______ again." Yet, only one of these subjects could instantly relate what her life was like at that particular age. An examination by the subject and interviewer, in each instance, revealed that the related age had been a period of happiness.

The desired ages of four subjects would have placed them at the beginning of their administrative careers in higher education. Three of these subjects related wishing for an opportunity to relive these experiences knowing what they know now. The fourth, who was in her early 30's, wished to be a year younger, as she was concerned about how much she would have accomplished by the coming year. Another subject's desired age would have placed her the year before her husband's death. One subject preferred to be again the age at the birth of her first child. This subject stated that she had always wanted to be a homemaker and that her children were her greatest achievements. If she had the opportunity to relive her life from this age, she would not have worked outside the home the second time. The other subject wished to be again in college to participate in athletic opportunities being offered young women that were not available when she was in school.

The only subjects reporting discontentment with their present ages were those approaching 40. One subject near 40 stated not wanting to risk being younger again as she felt "lucky to have made it this far the first time." All older subjects but the six reported above described each advancing age as better than all prior ages. As one subject in her late 50's described, "The sugar's at the bottom of the cup."

Only two subjects had experienced any major health problems, and these problems had not hindered the performance of the subjects' work. During her illness, one subject conducted her work by telephone from her house. Regardless of age, all subjects except one stated feeling very energetic, and this one reported having enough energy to do her job well.

The amount of sleep required by the subjects varied (3-10 hours), but a frequent (51%) response to the amount of food required implied that much more was eaten than was actually needed. Some of the subjects had gained weight after becoming senior-level administrators, a fact which they credited to the number of meal-meetings they attended.

### Family of Procreation

Relationships with husbands and children were examined. These relationships are discussed below.

#### Husband

At the time of the interviews 19 subjects in this study were living with husbands. Six of these subjects were married for a second time after having divorced from their first husbands.

Of the remaining 25 subjects who were single, 12 had never married, 10 were presently divorced, and 3 were widowed, as is shown in Table 22.

Table 22

Marital Status at Time of Interview

| Status | | | Number | Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Married | | | 19 | 43 |
| Single: | Never Married | 12 | | |
| | Divorced | 10 | | |
| | Widowed | 3 | 25 | 57 |
| Total | | | 44 | 100 |

The nature of marital relationships varied. Four of the married subjects in this study reported never discussing professional problems with their husbands. One subject stated her husband had no idea what she did on a daily basis. Another subject refused to entrust professional problems to her husband as his response was to make light of the problem. One subject tried to avoid discussing professional issues in her home as this was her way of finding a restful break from her job.

Six subjects described their husbands in terms used also for describing mentors. These six described their husbands as their primary source of support, personally and professionally. All six subjects told of being encouraged in their careers by their husbands. "Often to go further than I wanted," stated a subject. "I'd be lost without him as I don't have a lot of other friends," was a typical statement related by one.

Husbands attended social activities that were related to the positions of the subjects, and two husbands regularly accompanied their wives to professional conventions. "It used to be a joke of whether I would join the men and him the women with boredom for only him, or for him to join the men and me to join the women and both of us be bored," shared one subject.

One husband had accepted an early retirement to move with his wife when she accepted her senior-level position. Four couples maintained separate residences. One of these couples had children who resided with the wife. This husband telephoned his wife every morning and children every afternoon and commuted to the wife's residence each weekend. In two marriages the husbands commuted usually two weekends a month to the wife's residence. One husband's work allowed him to stay at his wife's residence for week-long periods in the summers. Weekend commuting trips of the fourth couple were determined by required social obligations of their professions.

The major source of marital tension in four marriages was the amount of time each subject invested in her position. Due to their administrative positions, four other subjects were their husbands' bosses, and this arrangement was a source of tension for two. Three husbands were said to receive ridicule and teasing from their peers for having a professional wife.

All subjects except two described their marriages as being better than the marriages of their parents. They described their marriages as more open, equal, and loving. The two whose marriages contained strong similarities to their parents' described their parents' relationships in positive terms.

Children

Of the subjects studied 22 had a total of 53 (average = 2.4) children, including a young adopted child. In addition, three subjects married men who had pre-teenage or older children from previous marriages, and each assumed the mothering role for these step-children. Family sizes ranged from one to four children. One subject gave birth to a child while serving the second year of her administrative position.

No subject younger than age 45 had discontinued working to be in full-time homemaking. One young subject who brought her own mother to live with her related, "I always felt if my child was cared for after school, I would have no guilt." She described this arrangement as allowing her child the benefit of two permanent mothers.

Subjects with small children designed early morning hours for time together, and the mother's social life centered around the children. Weekends were filled with boating, fishing, skiing, and attending little league games.

Two subjects sent their sons to boarding schools when the boys reached high school age. Moving to follow a mother's career was viewed as damaging by the children of two families, and the children of these families related the idea to their mother of "getting rooted and then pulled up." One subject had held careers that allowed her to share her activities with her children, allowing the children to meet famous people and to attend formal socials.

Three subjects reported having guilt feelings over the conflict of their children and their careers. One subject always questioned if her children's lives would have been better had she not worked. Another subject reported that her children caused her grief because they reported that she failed to put her books aside to listen to them. The third subject concluded that her daughter's teen years would have been less turbulent had she remained a faculty member because she would have had more time to devote to motherhood.

In three of the six homes of subjects who had college-aged children of both sexes, the daughters advanced beyond sons in the level of education attained. In two homes the educational level of both sexes was the same; in only one case did education of sons exceed that of daughters. In the eight homes of subjects who had children of the same sex who were of college age, all children had received or were studying for bachelor's degrees, and in four of these homes children had already received terminal degrees.

## Family of Origin

Relationships with parents and other relatives were examined. These relationships are discussed below.

### Parents

Of the 41 administrative subjects reporting on this topic, 32 (78%) had mothers who did not work outside the home while the subjects were living at home. Two of the employed mothers had earned advanced degrees, one as a nutritionist and the other as a physician. Three mothers worked in a family business, and the others were employed as secretaries or cooks.

Five fathers had earned advanced degrees: two as physicians, one as an agriculturist, one as a lawyer, and the other as a chemist. Seven parents had been employed in the field of education. Four mothers had taught prior to having children, and three fathers were in school administration.

Two subjects were reared in divorced homes, and neither subject knew her father. One subject was reared in a series of boarding schools and foster homes. In their early teen years three subjects lost a parent by death, two mothers and one father. Four subjects reported being reared in homes by alcoholic parents, three fathers and a mother.

Of the administrative subjects studied, 36 (82%) described their early homelife in positive ways; e.g., loving parents, devoted to children. When strong negative emotions were revealed, five out of the eight times they were directed at fathers.

After the subjects became adults, five brought parents to live in their homes, four mothers and one father. Three other subjects assumed financial responsibility for their parents. When three subjects made job relocations, their mothers were reported as instantly arriving to visit the place of employment and living quarters to assist the subjects in getting established.

### Other Relatives

Four subjects related discussing professional concerns with older sisters. In all cases the sisters were employed in education.

Three administrative subjects stated being heavily influenced by grandparents as they lived permanently, for limited periods of time, in such homes. Four other subjects credited grandmothers with helping to establish their values and aiding in their careers. As one subject stated, "She taught me how to teach all eight grades in one room."

All subjects shared proudly the knowledge they possessed of their ancestry. All subjects were American born; two subjects were first-generation Americans, with ancestors from Russia and Finland, and four subjects were second-generation Americans, two from Hungary, one from Germany, and one from Poland. Six subjects were of German descent, and three participants were black. The remaining subjects were of mixed national origin, such as English, French, and Irish.

## Relationships with Others

Relationships with mentors and major professors were examined. These are discussed below.

### Mentor

As Table 23 shows, of the 44 subjects studied, 20 (45%) had mentors at some point in their lives. The youngest age at which a subject experienced a mentoring relationship was 18. The oldest age for beginning such a relationship was 42, and the oldest age during such a relationship was 50. Both married and single subjects had mentors. Six subjects had more than one mentor during their careers. Only four subjects had mentors who were women.

Table 23

Have You Ever Had a Mentor?

| Marital Status During Relationship | Age of Subject During Relationship | Number and Sex of Mentors | Setting During Relationship |
|---|---|---|---|
| Single | 24-> | 1 F | Graduate School - Higher Education Administration |
| Married | 24-26 | 1 M | Graduate School |
| Married | 23-26 | 1 M | College |
|  | 33-> | 1 F | Higher Education Administration |
| Married | 18-22 | 4 M | College - Graduate School |
|  | 23-25 | 1 F | Higher Education Teaching - Higher Education Administration |
|  | 26-30 |  |  |
|  | 32-36 |  |  |
|  | 38-> |  |  |
| Divorced | 24-26 | 2 M | Graduate School - Higher Education Administration |
| Married |  | Husband |  |
| Married | 34-38 | 1 M | Graduate School |
| Married |  | Husband |  |
| Married | 27-31 | 2 M | Graduate School - Higher Education Administration |
| Widowed | 29-42 | 1 M | Graduate School - Higher Education Teaching, Higher Education Administration |
| Divorced | 41-42 | 1 M | Job Other |
| Single | 31-> | 1 M | Higher Education Administration |
| Single | 18-23 | 3 M | College - Higher Education Teaching - Higher Education Administration |
|  | 41-47 |  |  |
| Married |  | Husband |  |
| Married |  | Husband |  |
| Divorced | 42-50 | 1 M | Job Other |
| Single | 34-50 | 1 F | Higher Education Teaching - Higher Education Administration |
| Married | 20-24 | 3 M | Job Other - Graduate School |
|  | 30-39 |  |  |
|  | 41-45 |  |  |
| Married |  | Husband |  |
| Married |  | Husband |  |

Two subjects indicated an awareness that they were beginning relationships with new mentors at the time of this study. This new mentor would be the second mentoring relationship for one subject and the fifth for the other. These subjects' ages were in their late 30's.

Those who served as mentors to senior-level administrative subjects were faculty members, bosses, major professors, counselors, colleagues, vice presidents, presidents, and husbands. The mentoring relationship was described as one of mutual love and respect. Terms used to describe the mentor were friend, advisor, pusher, confronter, protector, listener, encourager, supporter, teacher, and convincer. Terms the subjects used to describe their roles were dependence and loyalty. The key ingredient to the success of the relationship was defined as the amount of time invested.

The mentor was said to have received as much enjoyment and pride from the subject's achievements as the subject, but in no cases would the mentor publicly share or benefit from the subject's endeavors. "He just enjoyed showing me off," described one subject.

While leaning heavily upon their mentors' support, two subjects lost their mentors by relocating, and a third lost her mentor by death. All instantly sought another mentoring relationship and were frustrated with their substitutes. One reported being scarred by the competition that developed between her and the substitute which led to a betrayal of professional trust. Another subject was compelled to move to another institution to complete her degree because the substitute mentor did not fulfill her needs.

One subject described an upsetting scene when she refused a man's mentoring skills. When the subject quickly advanced beyond the man's position, he created a scene by telling the subject that she was not adequately prepared without the training he could provide.

Only one subject in this study saw a mentoring relationship to the termination stage. This mentor was facing retirement, and he was leaning on the subject to keep him professionally active. This subject described herself as needing room to grow independently, and the mentor interpreted this need as a rejection. This termination process took several months and numerous discussions to complete. The subject stated being able to gain her freedom only after several arguments; she still maintained a friendship, although not as close a friendship.

All other subjects in this study appeared to leave mentoring relationships by relocating while at the idealistic stage of the relationship. These subjects often reported extended relationships with their mentors by staying in contact after this move. All subjects except two moved to other work environments (often to other states). While at the same institution as their mentors, these two subjects relocated to departments that were located on opposite sides of the campuses and which dealt with different educational issues, so as to no longer share the same type of professional concerns.

All subjects who had mentors reported positive feelings about that type of relationship. One subject who had never had a mentor, however, demonstrated resentment of the concept. Her description was, "a kind of false expectation and false perception . . . overrated and over-exaggerated."

Five subjects served as mentors, although two had never had mentors themselves. All served as mentors for women, and one had also served as a mentor for a young man. Another subject reported "trying" to be a mentor to a young man but found, "I just do not have the time." In these mentoring relationships the central ingredient again was time.

Subjects described those for whom they were mentors as young, bright, talented, and possessors of real potential. Another subject related the quality of a low fear tolerance. Each subject mentioned an unwillingness to invest the required time in others. Administrators serving in the mentor role ranged in age from 40 through the 60's.

### Major Professor

The major professor was the single person most frequently credited in the lives of the subjects as being the outstanding person playing a significant part in their career development. It was not uncommon to hear the subjects say, "He made me what I am today," or, "He's the one who taught me I could tackle anything."

For eight subjects major professors were also mentors, and the relationship with the major professors closely resembled the mentoring relationship for four other subjects. These four recognized receiving more special treatment than the professors' other students. Three senior-level administrators still maintained close contact with their major professors.

One professor attended the administrative inauguration of a subject residing in another state. After deciding to change institutions, one major professor invited this subject to transfer to his new institution to complete her degree. Another subject often stayed weekends at the home of her major professor. The professor's wife cooked her meals while the professor taught her to write. Other subjects accepted their major professors' advice about pursuing employment upon graduation.

"Excellent person, supporter, pusher, helper, and father-figure," were the descriptions the subjects applied to their major professors. Only one subject having a male major professor related negative aspects of the relationship.

Three subjects studied from major professors who were women. One woman professor was among those listed as mentors. Another subject had deliberately attempted to emulate her female professor. The third subject expressed hostility towards her major professor who was a woman. This woman professor was said to have mistreated the subject while serving as her advisor and to have later attempted to claim credit for the subject's professional successes.

# Chapter IV

## SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the study and present conclusions with a discussion of the results of this study and the information found in the review of the literature. The chapter concludes with recommendations for further study.

### Summary

The general purpose of this study was to examine the lives of women serving in senior-level administrative positions in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education to determine: (a) if there was a consistent career pattern for women attaining such positions, (b) if there were age-related factors influencing the careers of administrative women, and (c) if there were extra-age-related factors influencing the careers of these administrative women. Age-related factors were those factors identified as occurring at specific ages, and extra-age-related factors were other factors influencing a woman's career, determined by patterns of similar responses to interview questions. Forty-four (92% of the 48) women serving in the positions of president, provost, chancellor, vice president, vice provost, or vice chancellor during the spring academic semester of 1979 participated in this study. The method of data collection was the on-site intensive interview.

To determine if a consistent career pattern existed for women who had attained senior-level administrative positions, the reported biographical data from each subject's interview were tabulated and compared for patterns of similar experiences among their employment and education. While no consistent pattern existed, there were similarities among certain experiences.

1. Eighty-nine percent of the women had administrative experience in higher education prior to the senior-level position. The remaining 11% had been employed in higher education as teachers or had no prior experience in higher education.

2. Fifty percent of the vice presidents for student affairs first worked in elementary education. First jobs of the other 50% were in three different areas. Both vice presidents for administrative affairs began their careers in jobs other than education, and the two vice presidents for development first served as homemakers following undergraduate school.

3. Eighty percent of all presidents had been vice presidents immediately prior to assuming the presidency. Of the remaining presidents the recent employment of one had been as an acting president and that of the other had been as a director of a state department of education.

4. Fifty-five percent of the vice presidents were invited to take such positions by presidents of the employing institutions. The remaining 45% were nominated, asked by search committees, or answered advertisements.

5. Eighty percent of the women held doctoral degrees. Fourteen percent held master's degrees, and 6% held baccalaureate degrees.

6. All presidents held doctoral degrees. Eighty percent had PhD's; 20% had EdD's.

7. All vice presidents for academic affairs held doctoral degrees. Seventy-five percent had PhD's, 20% had EdD's, and 5% had MD's.

8. All women in their 30's who had doctorates had PhD's.

To determine if there were age-related factors influencing the careers of senior-level administrative women, each woman's entire interview was examined for reported changes in her life such as career changes, familial relationship changes, and personal value changes. Changes that had required women to evaluate their present conditions and to set new goals in those particular areas of their lives were considered transitional changes, and such changes were listed by the ages of the women during each change. Women in this study were found to go through transitions at certain age-related intervals throughout their adult life cycles. These age-related transitions were linked to the change of each decade: 17-23, 27-33, 37-43, 46-53, and 57-60. The years following a transition were used working to accomplish the newly set goals until another transition occurred. The same factors were examined and changed at each transition: careers, commitment of one's time and space, current marriages, relationships with children, relationships with parents, and one's personal values.

During the 17-23 transitional period the types of changes women found necessary to make were to attend college and decide on an academic field of study. Women had to determine a means for leaving their parents' households. Relationships with fathers were found to be supporting factors in women's decisions to attend college. Women had to decide if their future life-styles were to consist of being single or married, being homemakers or career women. At the 27-33 transitional period single women emphasized career changes, and all career-oriented women experienced an urge to achieve even where goals were not clearly defined. Women often experienced pressure to establish families, especially from mothers. Married women often interrupted their careers for periods of full-time homemaking and relocated for the advancement of husbands' careers. Women who had previously been full-time homemakers often sought an interest outside their homes. The 37-43 transitional period was called an identity crisis period because it was a time when women questioned previously held values. Career changes were now influenced by children's educational stability and the responsibility subjects often assumed for parents. During the 46-53 transitional period, married and single women placed equal emphasis upon career changes. Many women placed an emphasis upon careers for a first time. Career advancement created sex role conflict for some. Children needed to be provided more freedom, and parents needed more help with decisions at this period. Some women were ready to establish alternative life-styles. Women who had remained single in order to commit time and space to proving themselves successful in careers were ready to make commitments to family-oriented life-styles. During the 57-60 transitional period married women established separate households from husbands in order to accept administrative positions. Plans were made for retirement. Single women remained receptive to marriage.

In discussing their current lives, the women's responses which formed patterns of similarities were listed as extra-age-related factors. The following patterns were found.

1. Eighty percent of the women worked from 50 to 85 hours per week. Twenty percent worked 40 to 50 hours per week.

2. Fifty-two percent of the women worked for personal satisfaction. Forty-eight percent worked for both financial rewards and personal satisfaction.

3. Eighty-four percent of the women reported religious beliefs as important in their value systems; 16% were agnostic or atheist.

4. Seventy-three percent of the women had little interest in politics, while 27% were either politically involved or would like to be.

5. Eighty-five percent of the women believed the women's movement had served as a positive influence in society. Fifteen percent expressed either a negative, mixed, or neutral attitude towards the movement.

6. Seventy-three percent of the women had married at least once. Twenty-seven percent had never married.

7. Forty-three percent of the women were currently married, 27% had never married, 23% were divorced, and 7% were widowed.

8. Seventy-eight percent of the women came from homes where the mother was a full-time homemaker. Twenty-two percent had mothers who worked outside the home.

9. Forty-five percent of the women had mentors who aided in their career development. Fifty-five percent did not have the benefit of a mentor.

10. Seventy percent of those having a mentor had only one. Thirty percent of those having mentors had from two to five mentors.

11. Eighty-seven percent of those having mentors had male mentors; 13% had females.

12. Eleven percent of the women served as mentors to others; 89% had not.

13. Ninety-one percent of the women with terminal degrees reported positive aspects of their relationships with major advisors; 9% reported negative aspects of this relationship.

14. Thirty-four percent of the women with terminal degrees received more special treatment than their advisors' other students. Sixty-six percent of such women were treated as all other students were treated.

15. Success was defined in terms of a specific job by more than half the women in their 30's. Success was defined in self-actualizing terms most frequently by women in their 50's. Success was defined in terms of past achievements by the vast majority of women in their 60's.

16. The only women who did not feel young were in their 30's.

## Discussion

Six major areas will be discussed with comparisons and references to appropriate developmental theorists. These areas are: (a) career patterns, (b) life style, (c) mentor, (d) age-related transitions, and (e) age-related factors. This will be followed by a discussion of the intensive interview technique.

## Career Patterns

Mass and Kuyper (1974) demonstrated that the daily patterns of activities in the lives of women were strongly influenced by jobs, marriages, and children. The career discontinuities observed by Mass and Kuyper were supported by the lives of senior-level administrators in this study. The factors of being married, divorced, and widowed had pronounced effects upon the careers of the administrative women. Marriages and remarriages often found the subjects foregoing their careers in favor of the career advancements of husbands, and 95% of the women experiencing divorce or the death of a spouse relocated following such events. Some women moved to other states, some changed institutions, and some returned to school as students. Childbearing affected the careers of many (16 of the 22) women who were mothers, causing career interruptions.

As Table 24 indicates, when compared with the average 1975 American female, women in this study married, had a first child, and divorced later (1.4 years, 4.4 years, and 2.5 years, respectively). The women in this study did, however, have the same number of children (2.4) per mother as did college-educated females in 1975.

As Table 25 indicates, women in this study received their doctoral degrees at 1.2 years younger than the average female with a PhD in the United States, and more (1.0%) of the women in this study were married when receiving degrees. There were 8.6% fewer women in this study to enroll for graduate study immediately after receiving the BA's than is generally true for women obtaining PhD's. This percentage included those women studying on a full-time and part-time

## Table 24

## Comparison of Marriage and Natality Patterns of General United States Female Population and Administrative Women

| Marriage - Natality | United States Female Population[a] | Administrative Women | Comparison |
|---|---|---|---|
| Median Age at First Marriage | 20.8 yrs. | 22.2 yrs. | +1.4 yrs. |
| Median Age at Birth of First Child | 22.4 | 26.8 | +4.4 |
| Median Age of First Divorce | 29.5 | 32.0 | +2.5 |
| Number of Children per Mother with Four Years or More College | 2.4 | 2.4 | --- |

---

[a] The data for the United States female population are for the year 1975, as reported by the United States Department of Health, Education & Welfare (1978).

basis. When compared with the average American female with a PhD, women in this study came from homes where both the fathers and mothers had less education (18.1 and 11.9% less, respectively). Percentages for the United States female population are based on those women receiving PhD's, while women in this study received PhD's, EdD's, and one MD.

While affirmative action was not specifically included in the interview guide, it seems important to look at the findings in light of recent developments in this area. In spite of the passage of legislation making equal opportunity for women the law, the fact that only 48 women could be identified for this study seems to indicate that such legislation has not resulted in significant numbers of women in these positions. It should be noted, however, that 34 of the 44 subjects studied participated in a formal search process in obtaining their positions. This search might not have been open to them prior to the passage of such legislation. While 48 seems minuscule compared to the total number of senior level administrative positions in higher education, the number might have been smaller had not affirmative action required the open search process.

### Life-Style

Levinson (1978) discovered the importance for a young man in his early 20's to have a dream of how he wanted his life to be in the adult world, and this dream always included a career dream. Only 12 women in this study entered college with a specific career dream, and 2 were unable to obtain the degrees they desired; however, all women dreamed of themselves as being college educated. Before leaving undergraduate school, 11 women knew they wanted to immediately obtain a terminal degree. For some women this life-style vision included being single in order to pursue a career, while other women envisioned themselves as married and employed, and others as married and unemployed.

An important aspect of the life-style dream was found in the lives of the women in this study that was not present in the lives of Levinson's (1978) men. When thinking of their life-style choices, women were able to envision themselves as having two career choices: being employed or being a homemaker. Even one woman who had no children was a homemaker for several years, and one woman at the age of 50 was considering becoming a homemaker if she married. Marriage for the men in Levinson's study often demanded a fuller commitment to a man's profession. In this study young women who married supported their husbands' commitments to professions; and, even if employed themselves, the women usually did not place as much emphasis on their own careers until they were much older.

Levinson (1978) found that men around the age of 30 experienced an urgency to incorporate marriage into their dreams and to establish themselves in careers where they could work at advancing. Women in this study who reported this desire to marry at age 30 often forsook careers temporarily for homemaking.

Levinson (1978) found that men reevaluated their original life-style dreams around the age of 40 to determine their success in integrating the dreams' many facets. Men either recommitted to present careers and relationships or made drastic changes by breaking out and acquiring different jobs and divorcing. Some men made major shifts in life-styles.

The divorce rate for the administrative women in this study was highest at the age of 40. No woman who divorced reported making the commitment to remain permanently single. Many women made job changes, but none of the changes appeared to alter the entire life-style. None of the job changes involved a drastic difference in the type of work involved. The two women who described themselves as having begun a "second life" or a mid-life career change at age 40 both enrolled in school; however, neither woman actually accomplished their changes until completion of the graduate degree around the age of 50. Both had remained students for almost 10 years.

A major life-style change was made by one woman around the age of 50. A homemaker who had never been employed was ready for a career at this age. Another senior-level administrator near the age of 50 had resigned her position and had no future goals. This woman was amid a traumatic crisis and admitted regretting having not been true to her original dream to be a homemaker rather than being employed. Three women who recalled making the commitment to remain permanently single stated having now proven themselves in a career and being ready to consider family-oriented life-styles at the 46-53 transition. One such woman was considering being a homemaker if she married. The two women who described themselves as making mid-life career changes at 40 actually completed such changes at 50--an artist to higher education dissertation director and a homemaker, full-time community volunteer to senior-level administrator. The latter woman had divorced prior to enrolling in school but reported seeking another relationship. She found a relationship only after completing school at age [illegible]0. Other administrative women reported changing their emphasis from families to careers, placing emphasis on careers for a first time at this age.

Mentor

Levinson (1978) described the dynamics of a relationship with a mentor as being related to a man's age: facilitating the formation of the 20's life structure, promoting career progression of the 30's, and being terminated by 40. For women in this study no specific age range was more likely to have a mentor, and an upper age for seeking a mentor could not be definitely established. One woman did, however, have a mentor as an undergraduate student, lose contact with him, and again have the same mentor years later when she returned as a graduate student and was first employed in higher education. This woman's relationship with her mentor closely resembled that of Levinson's men's.

Another point of disagreement was in the number of mentors a subject could have. Levinson's (1978) men seldom had over one mentor and never over two. Women in this study, however, often stated seeking a mentor with each job relocation. One such woman reported a mentor/teacher in undergraduate school, another in graduate school, an older peer/mentor in her first teaching position, and the college president/mentor in her first administrative job. Mentoring relationships of men generally lasted 2 to 8 years, but for administrative women such relationships lasted from 2 to 16 years.

Levinson (1978) found that men rarely experienced such a relationship beyond the age of 40, as the men had to become full partners with mentors in their careers. Women in this study, however, sought a mentor relationship beyond the age of 40, and they often described themselves as contributing as much to their mentor's learning as they were receiving. As such, the women expressed feeling like an equal partner in most professional activities but like a protege in the areas in which the mentor was advising them. Levinson also defined the mentor as being 10 to 15 years older, but mentors for the women in this study were from 5 to 20 years older.

Men, as found by Levinson (1978), never had wives who served as mentors in their career development. Women in this study credited husbands with having served as their mentors, promoting their career development in six cases.

Levinson (1978) defined the termination of the mentoring relationship as a painful process. Only one woman in this study saw a mentoring relationship to the termination stage. Like the men in Levinson's study, this woman described herself as needing room to grow independently, which the mentor interpreted as rejection. All other women appeared to leave such relationships at the idealistic stage by death or relocations.

Stewart (1977) also examined the mentoring relationship and discovered mothers of women who were homemakers filled this mentoring role. Such a finding was not identified in this study.

### Age-Related Transitions

Responses of the women under investigation supported findings by Buhler (1935, 1968), Jung (1939), Erickson (1959, 1968), Neugarten (1965, 1968), Gould (1972, 1975), Lowenthal (1975), Sheehy (1976), and

Levinson (1978) of age-related transitional periods throughout the life cycle. As in Sheehy's and Levinson's findings, each period of change described as a transitional period in this study coincided with the change of each decade. Transitional changes most often began just prior to the change of a decade; e.g., 17, 27, and most often ended just after a decade change; e.g., 23, 33.

Levinson (1978) was the only theorist to provide upper and lower age limits at each period of change. Although closely related, the ages found in this study did vary from Levinson's, as shown in Table 26.

### Age-Related Factors

Findings in this study supported Jung's (1939) theory of developmental growth resulting from working at special factors in one's life rather than from finding permanent solutions for the factors. Jung discovered any solution for a problem was only temporary because in later years the factor had to again be faced, although in different ways. Gould's (1972, 1975) research found the common factor throughout the life cycle was the problem encountered rather than how one handled the problem. Common factors as found by both Jung and Gould were characteristic of the women in this study, and these same factors presented problems in different ways at different age periods for the women.

### Table 26

### Comparison of Levinson's Transitional Ages with Administrative Women

| Transitional Ages | |
|---|---|
| Levinson's Men | Administrative Women |
| 17-22 | 17-23 |
| 28-33 | 27-33 |
| 40-45 | 37-43 |
| 50-55 (Speculated) | 46-53 |
| 60-65 (Speculated) | 57-60 |

Three of the six factors found to be present during transitional periods in this study were family-oriented: marriage, mothering, parents. This finding would appear to support Lowenthal's (1975) discovery of family centeredness prevailing throughout the life cycle. Lowenthal also discovered male dominance to be crucial. Male dominance would appear to be characteristic of the marital relationships of women in this study while the women were younger and placed more emphasis upon the advancement of the careers of husbands. This male dominance diminished for at least four women in this study by age 50 when they established households separate from husbands in order to pursue their own careers.

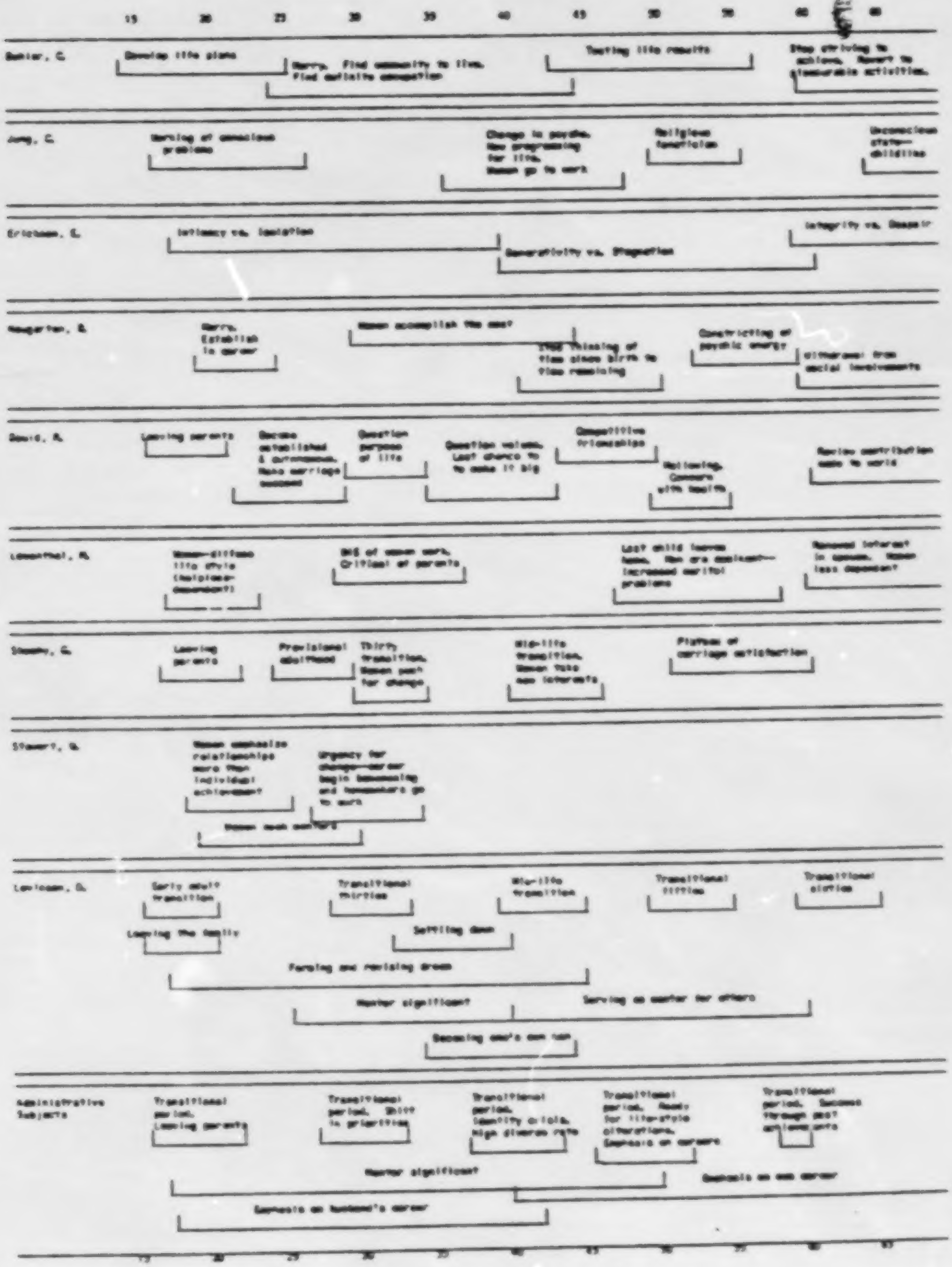
As is indicated in Table 27, the administrative women in this study possessed many age-related factors similar to those found by Buhler (1935, 1938), Jung (1939), Erickson (1959, 1968), Neugarten (1965, 1968), Gould (1972, 1975), Lowenthal (1975), Sheehy (1976), Stewart (1977), and Levinson (1978). Just as these theorists found the early 20's were ages for leaving homes of parents and establishing marriages and/or careers, the administrative women in this study undertook such tasks at the same ages.

The urgency to marry and establish families at the 27-33 transition by the women in this study supported an earlier finding by Stewart (1977). Levinson (1978) found this urgency also to be present in men around the age of 30. Women in this study reflected Stewart's and Sheehy's (1976) findings of a shift in priorities occurring at this age when women disrupted careers for homemaking and homemakers sought outside interests.

During the 37-43 transitional period the administrative women in this study reported a questioning of their values--an identity crisis--as discovered by Gould (1972, 1975), Sheehy (1976), and Levinson (1978), including a rethinking of one's age as was discovered by Neugarten (1965, 1968). Levinson determined that during this transition men struggled with four major issues related to their personal values: (a) young-old, (b) destruction-creation, (c) masculine-feminine, and (d) the meaning of success. Women in this study appeared to have questioned the young-old issue by their statements of recognizing being a woman rather than a girl, disapproving of physical changes, and recognizing the finitude of life through the death of long-time pets. The two women who admitted during this period that

Table 27

Theories of Life Phases in Adulthood Compared with Administrative Subjects



they had enjoyed being the helpless victims of bad marriages seemed to fit Levinson's description for destruction-creation. One woman in this study reported struggling with the masculine-feminine issue at the age of 40, reporting a sex role conflict. Women in this study reported being around the age of 40 when they became able to measure their own success by an internal standard. This internalization process corresponds with Levinson's findings for men at this same age. Administrative women in this study first reported serving as mentors at the age of 40, as was consistent with Levinson's findings, and this age coincided with the onset of Erickson's Generativity (1959, 1968).

The first expressions which indicated having an awareness of one's physical limitations began around the age of 50 for the women in this study, coinciding with the findings of Gould (1972, 1975). Defining success in terms of past experiences at the turn of the 60's by the women in this study corresponded with Gould's review of what one had contributed to the world and with Erickson's (1959, 1968) task of Integrity. The women in this study who established households separate from husbands seemed to support Lowenthal's theory of women being less dependent at this age.

Intensive Interview

The major limitations of using the interview as a data-gathering device as listed in the review of the literature were confirmed in this study. The interview relied on the subject's willingness to reveal information about their lives, it gathered more vivid accounts of recent events than of past events, and the interview produced autobiographical data that were not always comparable for all subjects. The advantages of allowing for lengthy, detailed responses, allowing for probing for clarification, and permitting subjects to describe their lives in their own terms were also confirmed in this study.

An additional advantage of using the one-site interview with the administrative women was found in this study. Several women stated refusing to participate in research studies using questionnaires because of being unable to find uncommitted and uninterrupted time for completing such forms. A personal visit allowed the women to schedule the interview as they did other appointments, and the presence of the interviewer was reported as hindering many interruptions that would have occurred otherwise.

## Conclusions

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions can be drawn for senior-level administrative women:

1. No specific educational degree, field of study, prior title, or age appears to be necessary for women to become senior-level administrators in four-year, coeducational, state-supported institutions of higher education; however, women's opportunities appear to be enhanced if they hold the PhD, attain some type of mid-level administrative position in higher education, and increase their visibility among presidents. The chances of becoming a president appear to be increased if women have served as vice presidents.

2. Few women appear to formulate career plans for advancement into senior-level administrative positions.

3. It appears that women can be reared to naturally expect to attend college, especially if their fathers emphasize education.

4. Women appear to determine early in their adult life their preferred life-styles: career-oriented, family-oriented, or a mixture of both.

5. Women appear to have an option of a homemaker life-style that, generally, is not available to men in Western society, and such an option does not appear to be restricted to young women with children.

6. Women who have fulfilled their early dreams seem to feel a need to then alter their area of emphasis and pursue a different life-style.

7. Marriage and fertility patterns do not appear to be determiners of the level of career achievement for women.

8. Married women appear to place more emphasis upon the career advancement of husbands than upon their own careers until the women are in their late 40's and 50's.

9. Women who are active in careers seem to be able between the ages of 50 and 60 to maintain marital relationships without the need of daily contact which was characteristic at younger ages.

10. Women seem to need to leave their present locations following a divorce or the death of a spouse.

11. The characteristics of a good mentoring relationship appear to be time investment and mutual respect. Such relationships seem to be developmental processes that evolve naturally and cannot be forced.

12. Transitional periods appear to occur in the lives of women and provide them with opportunities to reevaluate their lives and to establish new goals for each upcoming decade. The years following such transitions appear to be spent working on the newly established goals.

13. During the 20's it appears important for women to determine a field of academic study, to leave the home of parents, and to begin living the preferred life-style. Around the age of 30 women appear to have a need to either establish families or achieve in careers. There also appears to be a shift in priorities, with career women becoming homemakers and homemakers going to school or work at this age. Around the age of 40 women appear to experience an identity crisis. Around the age of 50 women appear to recognize their physical limitations, and around the age of 60 women appear to begin reviewing their past achievements.

## Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered for future study:

1. From this study it appears that women who attain senior-level administrative positions do not actively pursue such positions, and it would, therefore, seem important to examine women in middle management positions in higher education to determine why these women do not seek such advancement.

2. It seems important to conduct a similar study of women in other jobs to determine if the findings in this study hold true.

3. From this study it appears that women credit much of their initial career success to their relationships with major professors. It would, therefore, seem important to study the qualities exhibited by both women students and major professors, as well as factors in the situation, which contribute to such relationships.

4. It seems important that the same group of women be studied from different theoretical perspectives for comparative purposes in order to obtain a more complete conceptualization of women's egress into senior level administrative positions in higher education.

# LIST OF REFERENCES

Aery, Shaila. Organizational effectiveness and the woman administrator. *National Association of Student Personnel Administrators Journal*, 1977, *16*, 43-47.

Astin, Alexander. Academic administration: The hard core of sexism in academe. *UCLA Educator*, 1977, *19*, 60-66.

Astin, Helen S. Achieving educational equality for women. *National Association of Student Personnel Administrators Journal*, 1976, *14*, 15-24.

Barrow, Robin. *Plato and utilitarianism and education*. Boston: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1975.

Belson, W. A. Tape recording: Its effect on accuracy of response in survey interviews. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 1967, *4*, 253-260.

Bernard, Jessie. *Academic women*. University Park: The Pennsylvania State University Press, 1964.

Bernard, Jessie. Historical and structural barriers to occupational desegregation. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 1976, *1*, 87-94.

Bernard, Jessie. The educational needs of women. In A. Chickering (Ed.), *Modern American college*, San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1981.

Bernard, Jessie. *Women and the public interest*. University Park: The Pennsylvania State University Press, 1971.

Bielby, Denise Del Vento. Career sex--atypicality and career involvement of college educated women: Baseline evidence from the 1960's. *Sociology of Education*, 1978, *51*, 7-28.

Blaska, Betty. Women in academe--the need for support groups. *Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors*, 1976, *39*, 173-179.

Boulding, Elsie. Familial constraints on women's work roles. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 1976, *1*, 95-117.

Boulding, Elsie. *The underside of history: A view of women through time*. Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 1976.

Brandt, Richard M. *Studying behavior in natural settings*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972.

Bucher, R., Fritz, C. E., & Quarantelli, E. L. Tape recorded interviews in social research. *American Sociological Review*, 1956, *21*, 359-364.

Buhler, Charlotte. The curve of life as studied in biographies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1935, *19*, 405-410.

Buhler, Charlotte. The course of human life as a psychological problem. *Human Development*, 1968, *11*, 184-200.

Buhler, Charlotte. The developmental structure of goal setting in group and individual studies. In C. Buhler & F. Massarek, (Eds.), *The course of human life*, New York: Springer Publishers, 1968.

Burkett, Elinor C. Paradise not quite regained. *Integrateducation*, 1978, *17*, 21-25.

Burns, Edward McNall, & Ralph, Philip Lee. *World civilization* (5th ed.), New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1974.

Burton, Joyce Marialice H. An exploratory study of racially different female administrators in selected colleges and universities (Doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1976). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1976, *37*, 825-A. (University Microfilms No. 76-19, 094)

Caplow, Theodore, & McGee, Reece D. *The academic marketplace*. New York: Basic Books, 1958.

Chisholm, Roger, & McCarty, Marilu. *Principles of microeconomics*. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1978.

Conway, Jill. Woman's place. *Change*, 1978, *10*, 8-9.

Degler, Carl N. The historical roots of occupational segregation. Comment I. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 1976, *1*, 171-174.

Donisi, Mary Patricia. Women and men of the college president study: Their status attainment process and career development (Doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, 1978). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1979, *39*, 5132-B. (University Microfilms No. 7907060)

Elder, Peggy. Women in higher education: Qualified, except for sex. *National Association of Student Personnel Administrators Journal*, 1975, *13*, 9-18.

Erickson, E. H. *Identity, youth and crisis*. New York: W. W. Norton Co., Inc., 1968.

Erickson, E. H. Identity and the life cycle. *Psychological Issues*, 1959, *1*, 1-15.

Faulk, William W., & Cosby, Arthur G. Women and the status attainment process. *Social Science Quarterly*, 1975, *56*, 308-314.

Farmer, H., & Bohn, M. Home-career conflict reduction and the level of career interest in women. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 1970, *17*, 228-232.

Fields, Cheryl M. Change without progress for women on campus. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, April 1978, p. 14.

Fox, David J. *The research process in education*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.

Frankena, William K. *Three historical philosophies of education*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1965.

Freud, Sigmund. Three essays on the theory of sexuality. In Strachey (Ed.), *The standard edition of the complete psychological works of Sigmund Freud*. (Vol. 7). London: Harth Press, 1961. (Originally published 1905).

Friedan, Betty. *The feminine mystique*. New York: W. W. Norton, 1963.

Gates, Margaret J. Occupational segregation and the law. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 1976, *1*, 61-74.

Gardner, Linda Cheers. Employment status of female administrators and attitudes toward employment of female administrators in the community college system of North Carolina (Doctoral dissertation, East Tennessee State University, 1977). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1978, *38*, 3833-A - 3844-A. (University Microfilms No. 77-27, 984)

Gazette. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, October 7, 1978 - June 18, 1979.

Giggleman, Linda Jean C. A comparison of the personality characteristics of women administrators and women teachers in selected community colleges (Doctoral dissertation, East Texas State University, 1978). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1978, *39*, 3397-A. (University Microfilms No. 7824137)

Gilford, Dorothy M., & Snyder, Joan. Women and minority Ph.D.'s in the 1970's: A data book. National Research Council, National Academy of Sciences, 1977.

Gilmore, Beatrice. Women's need achievement and need to avoid success: Relationships with other variables (Doctoral dissertation, Illinois Institute of Technology, 1974). Dissertation Abstract International, 1975, 35, 6071 (University Microfilms No. 75-12, 805)

Glaser, Barney G., & Strauss, Anselm L. Discovery of substantive theory: A basic strategy underlying qualitative research. In William Filstead (ed.), Qualitative methodology: Firsthand involvement with the social world. Chicago: Markham Publishing Co., 1970.

Gleazer, Edmund J. Students, students everywhere--but how do we get them to college? National Association of Student Personnel Administrators Journal, 1977, 15, 24-31.

Good, Carter V. Dictionary of education. New York: McGraw Hill, 1973.

Gordon, Susan R., & Ball, Patricia G. Survival dynamics for women in educational administration. The National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, 1977, 40, 46-48.

Gordon, Suzanne E. Career patterns of female chief student affairs administrators (Doctoral dissertation, Florida State University, 1979). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1980, 40, 3655-A. (University Microfilms No. 8001098)

Gould, Roger. Adult life stages: Growth toward self-tolerance. Psychology Today, 1975, 8, 47-49.

Gould, Roger. The phases of adult life: A study in developmental psychology. The American Journal of Psychiatry, 1972, 129, 33-43.

Grambs, Jean Dresden. Women and administration: Confrontation or accommodation? The Education Digest, 1977, 52, 39-43.

Gump, J. P. Sex-role attitudes and psychological well-being. Journal of Social Issues, 1972, 28, 79-91.

Hall, F. I., & Schroeder, M. P. Time spent on household tasks. Journal of Home Economics, 1970, 23, 23-29.

Hanson, Theodora Florence. A study of assumptions about female administrators in higher education as perceived by faculty and administrators of colleges and universities in Utah (Doctoral dissertation, University of Utah, 1975). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1976, 36, 7234-A - 7235-A. (University Microfilms No. 76-11, 301)

Hartnett, Koula C. An analysis of the values, self-perception, and risk taking propensity of selected female and male upper-level administrators in eastern United States land-grant universities (Doctoral dissertation, West Virginia University, 1979). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1980, 40, 3808-A. (University Microfilms No. 8000196)

Hedges, J. N. Working women and the division of household tasks. Monthly Labor Review, 1972, 95, 9-14.

Holmstrom, L. L. The two career family. Cambridge: Schenkman Publishing Co., 1972.

Horner, M. S. Femininity and successful achievement: A basic inconsistency. In J. M. Bardwick, et. al., (Ed.), Feminine personality and conflict, Belmont, California: Brooks-Cole, 1970.

Hunt, Gladys. Ms. means myself. Grand Rapids: Zondervan Publishing House, 1972.

Jung, C. G. Modern man in search of a soul. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1939.

Kane, Joseph Nathan. Famous first facts. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1964.

Kaslow, Florence W., & Schwartz, Lita L. Self-perceptions of the attractive, successful female professional. Intellect, 1978, 106, 313-315.

Keener, Barbara Jean. An analysis of the perceptions of the leadership behavior of male and female University of Florida administrators (Doctoral dissertation, University of Florida, 1976). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1977, 37, 4023-A. (University Microfilms No. 77-1124)

Kennedy, Carroll E. Human development: The adult years and aging. New York: MacMillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1978.

Kohlberg, Lawrence. Moral and religious education and the public school: A developmental view. In Sizer (Ed.), Religion and public education. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1967.

Laws, Judith Long. Work aspirations of women: False leads and new starts. Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 1976, 1, 33-49.

Lee, Charles Franklin. Attitudes and perceptions of administrators and faculty members concerning the implementation of affirmative action goals for women in selected two-year colleges in New Jersey and the southeastern counties of Pennsylvania (Doctoral dissertation, Temple University, 1979). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1979, 40, 2392-A. (University Microfilms No. 7924067)

Levinson, Daniel J., Darrow, Charlotte N., Klein, Edward B., Levinson, Maria H., & McKee, Braxton. The seasons of a man's life. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1978.

Liss, Lora. Why academic women do not revolt. Implications for affirmative action. Sex Roles, 1975, 1, 209-233.

Lofland, John. Analyzing social settings. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishers, 1971.

Loevinger, Jane. Ego development. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1970.

Lowenthal, M. F. Psychosocial variations across the adult life course: Frontiers for research and policy. The Gerontologist, 1975, 1, 6-12.

Lowenthal, M. F., Thurnher, M. T., & Chiribioga, D. Four stages of life. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1975.

Lyon, Catherine Dillon, & Saario, Terry N. Women in public education: Sexual discrimination in promotions. Phi Delta Kappan, 1973, 55, 120-123.

Mass, Henry S., & Kuypers, Joseph A. From thirty to seventy. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1974.

Mash, Donald J. The development of life-style preferences of college women. The National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1978, 41, 72-76.

McBee, M. Louise, Murray, Rhonda, & Suddick, David E. Self-esteem difference of professional women. The National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1976, 39, 186-190.

McCorkle, Elizabeth Maxwell. Top-level women administrators in higher education: A study of women presidents, chief academic officers and academic deans in federal regions I, VI, and X (Doctoral dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1974). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1976, 36, 72-A. (University Microfilms No. 76-9715)

Myers, Henry. Women at work: How they're reshaping America. Princeton: Dow Jones & Co., 1979.

Neugarten, Bernice L. Adaptation and the life cycle. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 1976, *6*, 16-20.

Neugarten, Bernice. Adult personality: Toward a psychology of the life cycle. In B. Neugarten (Ed.), *Middle age and aging*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968.

Neugarten, B. L., Moore, J. W., & Lowe, J. C. Age norms, age constraints and adult socialization. *American Journal of Sociology*, 1965, *70*, 6-22.

Neuman, Stephanie G. Wife, mother, teacher, scholar, and sex object: Role conflict of a female academic. *Intellect*, 1978, *106*, 302-306.

Palmieri, Patricia, & Skakeshaft, Charol Smith. Up the front staircase: A proposal for women to achieve parity with men in the field of educational administration. *The National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors*, 1976, *39*, 58-66.

Papalia, Diane E., & Olds, Sally W. *Human development*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1978.

Parker, Franklin. Women at work and in school: The new revolution. *Intellect*, 1978, *106*, 310-312.

Paul, Carol Ann B. Personal, educational, and career patterns of men and women administrators in the Massachusetts community colleges (Doctoral dissertation, Boston University, 1978). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1979, *39*, 5286-A. (University Microfflms No. 7905018)

Perry, William G. *Forms of intellectual and ethical development in the college years*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970.

Pfiffner, Virginia T. Composite profile of a top-level California community college woman administrator. *The National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors*, 1976, *40*, 16-17.

Pifer, Alan. Women working: Toward a new society. *Annual Report of the Carnegie Corp.*, New York, 1976.

Pilato, Angelica Rita. The judgment policy used by community college administrators in judging the success potential of male and female administrative applicants. (Doctoral dissertation, Oregon State University, 1979). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 1979, *39*, 4827-A - 4848-A. (University Microfilms No. 7903610)

Podolsky, Arthur, & Smith, Carolyn R. Educational directory, colleges and universities, 1978-79. National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978.

Project on the Status of Women. Federal laws and regulations concerning sex discrimination in educational institutions. Association of American Colleges, June 1977.

Project on the Status of Women. Recruiting women for traditionally male careers: Programs and resources for getting women into men's world. Association of American Colleges, October 1977.

Ralston, Yvonne Louise. Analysis of attitudes as barriers to the selection of women as college presidents in Florida (Doctoral dissertation, University of Mississippi, 1974). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1975, 35, 6992-A. (University Microfilms No. 75-10, 687)

Rand, L. M., & Miller, A. L. A developmental cross sectioning of women's careers and marriage attitudes and life plans. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 1972, 2, 317-331.

Rapoport, R., & Rapoport, R. Dual career families. Baltimore: Penguin Books, Inc., 1971.

Roscow, J. M. The worker and the job. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1974.

Rossi, Alice. Women in science: Why so few? In C. Epstein & W. Goode (Eds.), The other half. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1971.

Schab, F. Southern college women. Journal of American Association of University Women, 1967, 60, 142-144.

Schlossberg, Nancy K. On the brink: Your own career decision. The National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1976, 40, 22-26.

Schmuck, Patricia A. Deterrents to women's careers in school management. Sex roles, 1975, 1, 339-353.

Seidenberg, R. Marriage between equals. New York: Amacon Publishers, 197[illegible].

Sharp, L. M. Education and employment: The early careers of college graduates. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University Press, 1970.

Sheehy, Gail. Passages. Predictable crises of adult life. New York: E. P. Dutton Co., Inc., 1976.

Staines, Graham, Tavris, Carol, & Jayaratne, Toby Epstein. The queen bee syndrome. Psychology Today, January 1974, 75, 55-60.

Steinman, A. Female and male concepts of sex roles in an overview of twenty years of cross-cultural research. International Mental Health Research Newsletter, 1975, 17, 2-11.

Stern, Maxine S. Impacts of changes in the physician manpower sex ratio. Journal of Medical Education, 1976, 51, 1012-1013.

Stevenson, Florence Byrd. Women administrators in big ten universities (Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1973). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1974, 34, 5553-A - 5554-A. (University Microfilms No. 74-6141)

Stewart, Wendy Ann. A psychosocial study of the formation of the early adult life structure in women (Doctoral dissertation, Columbia University, 1977). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1977, 38B, 381-B - 382-B. (University Microfilms No. 77-14, 849)

Strommer, Diane W. Whether thou goest: Feminism and the education of women. The National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 1976, 39, 81-90.

Taylor, Suzanne S. Educational leadership: A male domain? Phi Delta Kappan, 1973, 55, 124-131.

Tessler, Sharlene Estella. Profiles of selected women college presidents reflecting the emerging role of women in higher education. (Doctoral dissertation, Boston College, 1976). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1976, 37, 840-A. (University Microfilms No. 76-18, 927)

Thomas, Emma Joahanne. Career patterns of black women administrators in historically Negro senior colleges and universities (Doctoral dissertation, Washington State University, 1976). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1977, 37, 3459-A - 3460-A. (University Microfilms No. 76-28, 776)

U.S. Department of Health, Education, & Welfare. Vital statistics of the United States in 1975, Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1978.

U.S. Department of Labor. 1975 Handbook on women workers. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office.

Van Dusen, R. A., & Sheldon, E. B. The changing status of American women: A life cycle perspective. American Psychologist, 1976, 31, 106-116.

Verheyden-Hillard, Mary Ellen. The training ground for women in administration. The Education Digest, 1975, 33-36.

Wasden, F. Del. In defense of the external Ed.D. Phi Delta Kappan, 1979, 60, 568.

Watley, D. J. Career or marriage: A longitudinal study of able young women. In A. Theodore (Ed.), The professional women. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Schenkman Publishing Co., 1971.

White, Bonnie Yvonne. Superordinate and subordinate perceptions of managerial styles of selected male and female college administrators (Doctoral dissertation, Brigham Young University, 1976). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1976, 37, 841-A. (University Microfilms No. 76-18, 355)

White, Robert. Development of humanitarian concern. In A. Chickering (Ed.), Modern American college, San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1981.

Woman. World Book Encyclopedia (1972 ed.). 21, 316-324.